

# CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Volume V

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# CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

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## EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

### REPORT OF CONFERENCE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The first of the regional conferences called by the State Department of Education for elementary school principals and district superintendents was held at the State College, Fresno, October 17, 1936.

Despite the rain, the Progressive Education Association meeting in Los Angeles, and numerous football games in the vicinity, more than three hundred persons gathered for the meeting. J. David Laird, President of the Central Section, California Elementary School Principals' Association, presided at the morning session.

The work of the state committee on scope and sequence of major learnings in the curriculum was discussed by I. O. Addicott, Director of Curriculum, Fresno Public Schools, and a member of the state wide committee. The group was much interested in the report and discussed with Mr. Addicott many questions concerning the activities of the committee and the guidance which principals might expect from the forthcoming reports of the scope and sequence committee relative to the elementary school curriculum.

The *Teachers' Guide to Child Development in the Intermediate Grades* was discussed by Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools. The principals and supervisors of the central valley area have already entered enthusiastically into a program of teachers meetings based upon this volume. Discussion centered about their practical problems in interpreting the *Guide* to teachers and in stimulating its effective use in middle grade classrooms. Panel members who directed the discussion were Orville Armstrong, Roosevelt School, Bakersfield; Albert R. Lang, Dean of Upper Division, Fresno State College; Robert Lee, Principal, Livingston School, Livingston; Blanche Lucas, Principal, Dos Palos School, Dos Palos; Newell D. Meyers, Principal, Strathmore Union School, Visalia.

Luncheon was served in the outdoor corridors of the college. Dr. Theodore J. Kreps, Associate Professor of Business Economics, Stanford University, was the guest speaker. He spoke on "What is

the American Economic System?" The sound American point of view on vital economic issues expressed by Dr. Kreps in a dynamic way, was well received by the members of the conference.

President William J. Burkhard brought greetings from the California Elementary School Principals' Association and outlined the enterprises of the state association for 1936-1937. The central section of the California Association held a short business meeting following the conference under the leadership of J. David Laird.

### EDUCATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE GROUPS

The California State Department of Education in cooperation with the California School Supervisors Association, Southern Section, conducted a Conference on the Education of Foreign Language Groups at John Adams Junior High School, Los Angeles, October 31, 1936. About six hundred educators from the six southern California counties were in attendance at the conference.

The subject, Provision of Suitable School Environment and Equipment, was presented by Mrs. Barbara Webster, Principal, Barbara Webster School, Santa Paula. Among the aspects of the subject presented by the speaker and discussed by the panel were the teacher as a part of the environment, the physical conditions of the school, the desirability of informal furniture and arrangements, provision for adequate well-selected books, the place of natural science equipment, provision for practical arts.

Much interest centered around the discussion of Adaptation of Curriculum to the Needs of Children. Mrs. Gladys L. Potter, Assistant Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools, made an analytical presentation of the problems relative to curriculum. The demand for Mrs. Potter's presentation was so great that it will appear in the next issue of the *California Journal of Elementary Education*.

A luncheon program arranged around the central theme, Utilization of Native Culture, was received with much enthusiasm.

In presenting the utilization of native arts and crafts, Miss May Gearhart, Supervisor of Art, Los Angeles, showed a large number of interesting paintings and craft objects made by foreign children in the Los Angeles schools, and spoke as follows:

Art expression offers a means whereby a child can record impressions or communicate ideas for which his vocabulary, written or spoken, may be inadequate. For the foreign speaking child, drawing, painting, modeling and the like provide a ready release from the stultifying conditions imposed by language restrictions. He may stumble and fumble in expressing himself in a new tongue but his art easily reveals his ideas and attitudes of

mind. The alert teacher is quick to recognize the contributions children of foreign parentage can make through tradition, memory, inherent techniques and skills, and actual materials loaned from homes where parents still preserve costumes or other treasures brought from alien shores. The Japanese child's wonderful handling of his brush, the Mexican's adroit manipulation of materials with his craftsman's hands, the Russian's recognition of rich design are influences in the broadening of the art horizon for all the children of the school group. By recognizing his art ability the teacher helps the young foreigner to acquire a feeling of stability and security in his new home. Regardless of whether a child is American born or of foreign parentage, to achieve vigor and vitality in his art expression the source of his work must be based upon his own observation and experience. We are often reminded that we do not truly understand any people until we are aware of their art. We should encourage the foreign child in pride in his heritage but at the same time the idea must be fostered that he is now an American and that his art expression should be related to the needs of his present environment. The growth of a sturdy American art does not necessitate the rejection of the influences from many cultures but rather an assimilation, an adaptation, and a use of their art values with an intelligent consideration of the conditions and the opportunities existing in the immediate situation.

Miss Jessie Tritt, Supervisor of Education for Exceptional Children, Los Angeles City Schools, presented an interesting program of Japanese and Russian dances. Miss Tritt analyzed the problem of foreign groups in Los Angeles as follows:

Each spring it is the custom for the Los Angeles City Schools to check the language backgrounds of the children in attendance. In March, 1936, there were 90,000 children from homes where a foreign language was habitually spoken. Out of this 90,000 children about half were Spanish or Mexican. The distribution of nationalities showed that 44,000 were Mexican or Spanish; 8200, Japanese; 7000, Italian; 6000, German or Dutch; 5000, Russian or Slavic; 2600, Scandinavian; 2000, French; 1400, Armenian; and 13,800 were of other nationalities.

There were 210,000 American and English children, including negroes—a total of 300,000 enrolled last March. These large numbers of foreign children were scattered throughout the district. If they were grouped by nationalities each nationality would fill several school buildings. In various districts, certain types of foreign children predominate in the school.

When elementary or high school children enroll who do not speak English they are sent to foreign adjustment rooms to be helped to overcome their language difficulty.

A large group of Mexican children were presented in native costume. Mrs. Mabel Seeds Spizzy, Supervisor of Music in Orange County, has developed an extensive program for the utilization of the native songs and dances. Mrs. Spizzy said in introducing the children:

The psychological approach to the foreign language group's educational problems is to create in the boys and girls and their parents a sense of

belonging to our country. This sense of belonging can best be approached through the utilization of the arts, in which language is not a barrier for comprehension. The meaning of these arts can be grasped by all. They represent the only universal language.

The Mexican schools in Orange County in utilizing the authentic folk songs and dances of Mexico try to adhere to the native costumes when these are presented. These schools like to present Mexican fiestas on Cinco de Mayo.

Professor J. H. Batten of Claremont Colleges spoke on the problem of the second generation foreign group. He said:

We have in California four alien groups: the Chinese, the Japanese, the Filipinos, and Mexicans. These constitute to all practical intents four nations within a nation, foreign in training and ideals to our concept of democracy. Strict enforcement of our immigration laws has halted any further influx of these nationalities. It is not likely that these measures will be relaxed. The problem of the future will be entirely with the second and third generation.

The original immigrant groups are uninterested in American citizenship. The Mexican is the most important of these groups because of our growing cultural and commercial relations with Mexico. We shall have a large group of second and third generation Mexicans who by virtue of their birth are American citizens. If they are to be anything more than mere nominal citizens, we must enter into closer and more considerate relations with them. Educationally, it is not enough to pass them through our graded schools and send them out with a mere knowledge of the English language. Socially, it is not enough to meet them on terms of equality in athletics and close the doors of further social intercourse. Very few of these younger Mexicans are entering high school and college and a very small minority are exercising their rights of citizenship. They will be with us as a permanent factor in our social, commercial, and political life. What are we going to do about it?

The afternoon session of the conference was devoted to a discussion of the utilization of community resources and the problems of health, and physical and social welfare. The former topic was presented by Mrs. Almira D. Franchville, Associate Supervisor, United Pueblos Agency, Albuquerque, New Mexico; the latter by Edward Lee Russell, M.D., Director of Child Hygiene for Orange County.

Among those who participated in discussion panels were J. W. Cokeley, Marion Louise Horton, Edythe Phillips, Mary H. Thomason, Clophine Dooley, Edith Gilbert, H. Fred Heisner, M. G. Jones, Ada Larson, Mae W. Stewart, Dr. M. Madilene Veverka, Cora Lee Danielson, Mary Frances Martin, Edna Armstrong, Naomi N. Griffin, J. D. Hayes, Georgia Nelson, Mary Stewart, Nelle C. Taylor, Lela J. Beebe, M.D., Hazel Crowl, Guy M. Hoyt and M. B. Madden. Hugo Escobar and Ramon Hernandez were special representatives

of the Mexican government at the conference and Tomokazu Hori, Consul of Japan, was also present in an official capacity.

The consensus of opinion of those present was that this conference should be an annual educational event to report the progress made in the interim in meeting the needs of the foreign language groups in the public schools.

### **HIGH LIGHTS OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION CONFERENCE IN LOS ANGELES**

The Second Annual Conference of the Southern California Regional Branch of the Progressive Education Association was held at the Hotel Biltmore in Los Angeles October 16, 17, and 18, 1936. The theme, understanding the problems of present day life, was brilliantly discussed in a series of well planned meetings. Great credit for the success of the conference is due to Robert Hill Lane, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, and the executive and steering committees of southern California educators who worked under his direction in developing the program and conducting the conference.

The scope of the conference which included nineteen separate meetings precludes a complete presentation of the deliberations here. An attempt will be made to include in this report the high lights of the discussions and particularly to present the points of view expressed by those out-of-state speakers who appeared at the conference.

### **PROBLEMS OF FAMILY-SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS AND RESPONSIBILITIES**

The morning and afternoon sessions of the first day of the conference were devoted to problems of home and school relationship. The problems of early childhood, the problems of later childhood and adolescence, and the curricular trends on each level, were presented by Dr. Lois Hayden Meek, Director, Institute of Child Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, Dr. Paul Witty of Northwestern University, and Dr. Vivian T. Thayer, Ethical Culture Schools, New York, N. Y.

Dr. Meek stressed the point of view that parents must have a part in planning the school. Educational progress depends upon a mutual understanding on the part of teachers and parents of their common problems. As soon as schools attempt to break away from regimentation, they run into the resistances of tradition. If parents have an opportunity to be a part of the school, if they have a part in planning the curriculum of the school, they will have no fears when innovations are introduced. The reason the school gets an antago-



nistic attitude is because parents lack the experiences which lead educators to see the desirability of change. Great hope for better home and school relationships lies in the parent education movement which has already made such notable headway in California. The movement now needs the help of teachers in interesting parents in the scientific study of childhood. Teachers can provide the leadership to bring about those better child-teacher-parent relationships which are mutually educative.

In discussing the problems of later childhood and adolescence Dr. Witty proposed a number of significant problems: How shall we take into account in education the discrepancies we find in the growth patterns of children? At the same time, how shall we take into account in our educational program the fundamental drives of this level of development? How can we develop imagination, discrimination, self-direction, self-control, initiative in these young people? To what extent should parents participate in the educational program? How shall we get rid of the shackles that bind us at the present time in achieving our purposes for this period of maturation? Dr. Witty found the chief difficulty of this period to be the need of the teachers "to *drive children abreast* over standardized roads of learning." The discrepancies in education for this period may best be met by creating a curriculum in terms of areas of experience so real and vital that within them every child may find elements where he can make a genuine contribution to the group; units of work so arranged that children will be guided to grow progressively in power to use freedom intelligently. Schools have been judged too long by what the child learns and not by what is happening to the total organism. The heart of the curriculum is what is happening to the child.

Dr. Vivian Thayer in discussing the reorganization of the secondary schools said in part: Most experiments in curriculum revision are predominantly concerned with the needs of society as reflected in subject-matters organized apart from individuals or the needs of the individual, as a teacher or a given school may sense them. They tend, therefore, to be either exclusively society centered or exclusively child centered. The depression, however, reveals so clearly today the interrelatedness of changes in society and the needs of growth resulting from the impact of these changes upon the individual that there is little excuse for dealing any longer with either factor in isolation. The needs of the individual when viewed functionally are the outgrowth of the interplay of fundamental interests and characteristics and environmental conditions.

This analysis of functional relationships between conditions obtaining in the environment and characteristics of growth in young



people may be illustrated by reference to recent economic changes. Here fundamental transformations are under way which bear upon youth in a unique way. The traditional emphasis of American culture upon materialistic success, the identification of the right to live one's own life with economic independence, together with the progressively narrowing of old time opportunities for youth to enter early upon vocational performance, necessarily creates conflicts and problems in the lives of young people. These conflicts in turn suggest new responsibilities for the school and new organization of educational experiences both within the classroom and without. Similar illustrations might be drawn from community relationships, in so far as these affect the personal social adjustments of the individual boy and girl. We refer especially to problems arising out of the fact that we have evolved from a relatively homogeneous society, into one of diverse races, creeds, political ideals, and loyalties. Secondary education is concerned with the orientation of the individual within certain basic and essential relationships of life: individual development, immediate personal-social relationships, social-civic activities and economic-industrial life. This orientation, moreover, implies helping young people to cope intelligently with their essential needs. This calls for careful case studies of boys and girls as a sound foundation for the selection and use of educational materials and it implies as well some agreement on the part of teachers with respect to the directions of healthy growth, quality of mind and character which they believe typifies best the significant aspects of our culture today. With these analyses as guides, the teacher and the individual school must evolve its program in the light of its own pupils and its own local conditions.

#### NEW LIGHTS ON LEARNING

On Friday evening a notable panel of psychologists and educators discussed the problems of learning. Dr. Paul B. Diederich of Ohio State University proposed a classification of objectives which had been agreed upon by the thirty cooperating high schools in the Progressive Education Association's experiment. These objectives were presented as follows: (1) clear thinking; (2) knowledge, integrated in a world picture or philosophy; (3) study skills; reading, writing, speaking, number, library, laboratory, research, and learning from sources other than books; (4) work habits or character traits, such as intelligent self-direction, responsibility, and cooperation; (5) citizenship, or social consciousness, sensitivity, attitudes, and information; (6) social acceptability, the ability to make, keep, and entertain friends; (7) mental health; (8) physical health; (9) volitional

drives, the development and pursuit of ever clearer, more consistent, more attainable and more social interests, purposes, and goals; (10) leisure resources, including creative expression; (11) vocational orientation; and (12) practical competence, the ability to carry on successfully the routine activities of daily life.

The basic question for discussion by the panel in which Dr. Diederich and S. P. McCutchen of Ohio State University, Dr. Reginald Bell of Stanford University, Dr. F. T. Perkins of Claremont Colleges, and Dr. A. S. Raubenheimer of the University of Southern California participated was: How can the newer psychology help the classroom teacher do a better job of achieving these objectives? In general the answer suggested was that all education must start with the child, the nature of the organism with which the school has to deal. Education must be based upon as thorough an understanding as it is possible to achieve. The school must know the biological development; the social, intellectual, and cultural past; his health, his level of maturity. The school is not achieving its purposes because it is starting with an unknown quantity.

These objectives show that education is interested in educating the whole child. The behaviors described in these objectives are all behaviors of a total child. What have we to offer in the realization of these objectives? These objectives are leading forward to an individual which education hopes to produce, therefore, it must be concerned primarily in terms of goals for the child as well as goals for the learning program. Learning must be purposive, it must be creative, it must be carried on at the level of the maturity of the pupil and it must be carried on as an activity related to the environment of the child.

#### GUIDANCE

Considerable emphasis on guidance was given at every meeting of the conference. In connection with problems of guidance on the secondary level, Mr. McCutchen said: Secondary education has suffered in the past from a lack of expressed objectives which were real and valid. Where valid objectives have been expressed, there has been too much divergence between those of various departments of subject-matter. The problem of guidance is wrapped up in the need for a single, comprehensive set of valid objectives, accepted by every teacher in the school, and those objectives take cognizance of the need for the development of desirable traits and attitudes in students, one of the major problems of guidance will have been solved.

Guidance means more than vocational choice: the major questions to be asked in guidance work are "what sort of a person do you want

to be? What sort of work do you want to do?" It is the function of the school to lead every student to formulate his own answers to these questions, and then to provide the setting and the leadership and the guidance which will enable him to most nearly approximate that answer.

#### SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

An informal panel discussion on the immediate problems in the field of supervision was conducted by Dr. W. H. Burton, University of Southern California; Walter Hepner, President, San Diego State College; Dr. Lois Hayden Meek; Willard Beatty, President of the Progressive Education Association, and Miss Eva Danielson, Principal of Magnolia Avenue School, Los Angeles. Miss Helen Heffernan, Chief, Division of Elementary Education and Rural Schools, California State Department of Education, served as chairman. Such problems as the revision of supervisory techniques to deal with the progressive school, the selection and training of supervisors to secure greater coordination between the scientific and the philosophic point of view in education, the need of recognition of the personality of the teacher, the definition of the greatly expanded concept of supervision, clear definition of the field of supervision, the relation of administrative practices to effective supervision of instruction provided a spirited conference.

#### CHILDREN'S INTERESTS

No idea received more constant reiteration at the conference than the need of adapting instruction to the needs and interests of children. Dr. Witty discussed the specific problem and said in part: In every account of maladjusted school children, one finds the statement that children display little or no interest in their work or display a lamentable lack of suitable interests. Seldom does one find a mention of specific interests of poor readers, nor does one find a methodology by which interests may be explored. Progressive educators insist however that through the use of intrinsic interests of children, teachers can develop situations in which effective learning and happy, worthwhile living may transpire, situations which will involve a reconstructive and creative endeavor associated directly with children's real problems and needs.

Dr. Witty reported a study of the interests of four thousand school children recently undertaken under his direction. Teachers compiled by means of personal interviews through inventories of each child's vital interests, activities and experiences. These related to favorite leisure activities, hobbies, play preferences, vocational

ambitions, wishes, personal problems, and home relationships, movie and reading habits and experiences. The Witty-Kopel interest and activity interview-questionnaire was used. This procedure was designed to enable the teacher to understand better many of the problems and attitudes of each child; to effect the friendly, sympathetic teacher-pupil relationship essential in all productive school endeavor; and to yield an indication of the types of subject-matter particularly relevant and therefore highly motivated to children's interests, problems, and desires. These interest inventories reveal composite portraits of the predominant interest and thought patterns of successful and unsuccessful boys and girls of different age, grade, and maturity levels.

### THE PROBLEM OF READING

Reading instruction again occupied a center of interest in the program. Particularly at the higher levels of the elementary school and in the secondary school program. Dr. Witty again identified five major movements in improving the performance of children in reading: (1) special English classes in which the children devote their time to remedial work in reading; (2) individual case studies of each child by the teacher who seeks to establish a friendly, sympathetic relationship and through an informal personal interview to determine the child's vital interests; (3) a thorough physical examination to identify possible sensory deficiencies; (4) the selection of new reading materials in accord with each child's ability and interests; and (5) an orderly but flexible schedule of daily instruction, in which provision is made for abundant free reading, oral and written expression, varied individual reading assignments, and appropriate group activities.

### CREATIVE ARTS

Creative arts were discussed enthusiastically in many sessions. Three of the meetings were specifically devoted to the problems. In two of these meetings, Dr. Harold Rugg of Columbia University set up the principles fundamental to art expression. Three principles seemed to be indispensable to the creative art according to Dr. Rugg: first, clarification, a determined effort to perceive, to get hold of subtle relationships; secondly, the objectification of things seen, putting down in some medium the thing seen; and thirdly, subjecting the creative product to rigorous and dogged self-criticism. Dr. Rugg's discussion was followed by an application of these principles in the fields of painting, music, poetry, ceramics, and rhythmic bodily expression.

### THE DRAMATIC FINALE

The dramatic climax of the conference was provided at the Sunday morning session when progressive education was called to the bar of justice at which Federal Judge Leon Yankwich ably presided. For the prosecution Alfred L. Benshimol, Principal of the Belmont High School, Los Angeles, made a dramatic criticism of progressive education which was as dramatically refuted not only by Willard Beatty and Dr. Harold Rugg speaking for the defense but to many listeners as ably refuted by Dr. Lester B. Rogers of the University of Southern California presumably speaking for the prosecution in a skilful analysis of the historical steps by which education has arrived at the modern philosophy. His contribution was in the nature of a challenge to clearer definition of purposes rather than a condemnation of accomplishment. Judge Yankwich was in his usual role of the understanding layman who has studied the problems confronting education in a modern world and has come to enthusiastic acceptance of the progressive doctrine. In the light of the pyrotechnics furnished by Mr. Benshimol, the progressives were grateful for the rare insight of the presiding justice.

The jury consisted of a large audience of professional and lay leaders in southern California. The concentration with which the audience received the arguments of the advocates bodes well for educational progress in southern California.

### NEW LIBRARY SERVICE IN UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, announces a new agency in the United States Office of Education, established to foster the development of public and school library service throughout the United States. Services of the new agency will include:

1. Making surveys, studies, investigations, and reports regarding public, school, college, university and other libraries.
2. Coordinating library service on the national level with other forms of adult education.
3. Developing library participation in federal projects.
4. Fostering nation wide coordination of research materials among the more scholarly libraries, inter-state library cooperation, and development of public, school, and other library service throughout the country.

Congress recently approved establishment of a Federal Library Service Division in the Office of Education, United States Depart-



ment of the Interior, authorizing an appropriation of \$25,000 for the fiscal year 1936-37.

Commenting on the need for a federal library service in the Office of Education, Commissioner Studebaker says:

There is a growing demand upon the Office of Education for information and advisory service to libraries, corresponding to the type of service the Office now gives schools. Libraries are an essential part of the country's educational equipment. Schools without good library service administered by trained librarians cannot measure up to the modern conceptions or to the demands of modern methods in education. Independent study under guidance of teachers and tutors has advanced to such a stage that the library in the college is in fact the heart of the institution. Public libraries are expanding and intensifying their educational services. Many families now depend upon them wholly or in large part for their reading—on public questions, on vocations, and in the fields of culture—as well as for recreation. The amount and character of the use of public libraries have been directly affected by the constantly increasing demand for adult education as well as by the expanding interest in recreation and cultural reading which results from the improved school program and the broadening interest in public questions. This new library division in the United States Office of Education should be of great service to students, educators, librarians, and citizens in general.

### BUILDING AMERICA

The second series of the *Building America* illustrated studies of modern problems has begun publication with the printing of the picture study on "Our Constitution." This study shows pictorially how the Constitution was formed, amended and interpreted through the years and how recent legislation and Supreme Court decisions have affected the main issues before the people. In addition to the photographs are cartoons, picture graphs and picture diagrams that will help the student to understand quickly and clearly:

How a bill becomes a law.

How manhood suffrage was extended to include all males over 21.

How an amendment is added to the Constitution.

The set-up of the federal government in 1789 and today.

This study of the Constitution is noteworthy for a pictorial discussion on the struggles to change the Constitution. It is a valuable outline of the growth of democracy in the United States.

Seven other studies in the *Building America* series will follow in monthly succession. A complete list of those to be published this school year are:

Our Constitution  
Safety  
Clothing  
Social Security

Steel  
We Consumers  
Conservation  
Movies



*Building America* studies are a new type of text material produced by the Society For Curriculum Study under a grant from one of the educational foundations. They are designed as pictorial units of study for use primarily in the social studies classes of the junior and senior high school.

According to James E. Mendenhall, editor, Teachers College, Columbia University

The aim of *Building America* Picture Studies is to present pictorially the vital facts and events of daily life, things which people are concerned about every day and portray dramatically the splendid achievements of our people, the rich resources of our nation. They provide also an objective discussion of modern problems and give the reader a practical vision of how our people might build a finer life for themselves.

*Building America* is issued monthly, October through May, by the Society for Curriculum Study, Inc., 425 West 123d Street, New York, N. Y. It is prepared with the assistance of the United States Works Progress Administration and the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University. The subscription prices are single annual subscription (8 issues) each \$2, or \$1 each semiannual subscription (4 issues), single copies, each 30 cents. Complete schedule of prices for larger orders will be sent on request.

## TWO BOOKS IN THE FIELD OF SPEECH EDUCATION

Four California authors have recently contributed valuable material for the practical guidance of elementary school teachers in the field of speech education.

Sarah T. Barrows and Katharine H. Hall out of years of professional experience have provided the primary teacher with "systematic practice exercises for speech development" in *Games and Jingles for Speech Development*.<sup>1</sup>

Edna Cotrel and Elizabeth M. Halstead have provided upper grade teachers with *Class Lessons for Improving Speech*.<sup>2</sup>

General improvement of the speech of all elementary school children should result from the incorporation of the suggestions contained in these two books into classroom procedures. This general usefulness is the obvious purpose of the authors rather than the correction of outstandingly defective speech habits which frequently require the services of a specialist.

<sup>1</sup> Sarah T. Barrows, and Katharine H. Hall, *Games and Jingles for Speech Development*. Boston: Expression Company, 1936.

<sup>2</sup> Edna Cotrel, and Elizabeth M. Halstead, *Class Lessons for Improving Speech*. Boston: Expression Company, 1936.

### STORY PARADE

*Story Parade*, a new children's magazine has been well received in the schools of the nation. Teachers and children alike are delighted with the variety of stories, verses, plays, music and book reviews contained in the magazine. The contributors are leaders in the field of juvenile literature.

The magazine is a small, convenient size and exceptionally well printed. A special department, *Our Own*, is devoted to the verse, drawings, and short stories of the children themselves.

*Story Parade* is a non-commercial project sponsored by the Association for Arts in Childhood, a group of professional people, and others interested in literature. This group is determined to supply the long felt need of a juvenile magazine of fine quality and low price.

Further information may be obtained from Story Parade, Inc., 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

### DIGEST OF RESEARCH IN READING AND LANGUAGE

The fourth annual research bulletin of the National Conference on Research in Elementary School English is entitled *Research Problems in Reading in the Elementary School*. Under the editorship of Professor D. D. Durrell of the School of Education, Boston University, it reviews the present status of research in reading with special reference to reading readiness, primary reading problems, middle grade reading problems. There is a bibliography of 112 items. Critical reviews by Professors Paul McKee, William S. Gray, and Arthur I. Gates are included. The price is 50 cents.

Also published this year is the first Committee Report entitled *Bibliography of Unpublished Studies in Elementary School English 1925-1934*. This is a summarization and critical evaluation of recent important studies in elementary school language not otherwise available. The price is 25 cents.

Copies may be obtained by addressing C. C. Certain, Box 67, North End Station, Detroit, Michigan.

### CAPITOL PARK BOOKLET

*California's Capitol Park* is the title of a recently published thirty-one page pamphlet by Edward Joseph Heisch, describing Capitol Park in Sacramento. It is well illustrated and contains a classification and planting map of the flora, native and exotic, which is one of the chief features of the park. The pamphlet is published by

the Anderson Printing Company of Sacramento and is priced at 40 cents per copy.

### A FORESTRY HANDBOOK FOR CALIFORNIA

The Division of Information and Education, California Region, Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture, has announced the publication of a revised edition of the *Forestry Handbook for California*, which was prepared in cooperation with the California State Chamber of Commerce.

A foreword by Superintendent Vierling Kersey recommends the use of the handbook to all elementary and secondary schools in the state in connection with all educational activities designed to develop the understanding of pupils regarding the importance of conservation of natural resources. The handbook covers such essential features of the problem as forest types and forest trees of California, lumbering and reforestation, water conservation, grazing, use of forests for recreation, the wild life of the forest, the enemies of the forest, and the need of man's care in the preservation of forest resources.

During October copies of the handbook were distributed to the schools of California. Additional copies may be obtained, if necessary, from the Forest Service, 760 Market Street, San Francisco.

## WHAT CONSTITUTES A GOOD READING PROGRAM

FLOYD F. CALDWELL, *Department of Education,  
State College, Chico*

*The Reading Process.* Reading has been shown to be such a complex function that interference in any part may result in disability. Huey, after spending a number of years in studying the psychology of reading, became so impressed with its complexity that he felt to know reading in all its aspects would be to know all psychology. We might add that those who are engaged in reading instruction either as administrator, teacher, or librarian, also must know, if they are to function effectively, the physical, physiological, and sociological aspects as well.

In the process of reading the child must see and concentrate upon things much smaller than he has been accustomed to notice. It is remarkable, when we consider that for thousands and thousands of years during the race's evolvement, man, having concerned himself with that vision which had to do with objects in relation to distance, should be able to adjust himself as readily as he does to the reading process. In the short span of life which the child has experienced up to the time he enters school, he, too, has been concerned to a far greater extent with object and distance. When he learns to read, he accomplishes the feat of distinguishing differences that are extremely small; differences that must come with considerable mental and visual effort. He must learn new habits of looking at things. He must learn to distinguish between m and n, between p and q. He must learn that a . means one thing, that a , means another. The mind which in the beginning was concerned with objects, with things in the concrete, has had to develop the ability to recognize abstract symbols and associate them not only with objects but with behavior, with ideas and ideals, with qualities such as "goodness" and "badness," and with time and space relationships.

When these factors are taken into consideration, and when the teacher knows that, for the child, concepts of time and space, ideas and ideals of quality are difficult to grasp, the reasons will be more clear as to why the child may learn to recognize the names of objects and a few action words but will fail for months to learn such words as when, then, and where or this, that, or there. The teacher must be cognizant of all these difficulties and must use this knowledge in selecting the methods and in checking up on the results of instruction.

It is customary when launching upon a discussion of this type to organize the material into a number of categories. Here, four aspects of reading will be considered: the physical, the physiological, the psychological, and the sociological. The fact should be pointed out, however, that this is done only for convenience in treatment, for, in any reading situation, the boundary lines are not discernible. These provinces merge and precipitate into a configuration which involves a child reacting to his environment *en toto*.

#### THE PHYSICAL ASPECTS OF A GOOD READING PROGRAM

The physical aspects of the environment in which the child is expected to read is of the utmost importance to his physiological and psychological health.

*Lighting and Sight Conservation.* It would seem that a discussion of proper lighting would be unnecessary here but visits to schoolrooms and school libraries in widely separated areas within the state indicate that the principles of good lighting are being constantly ignored. These violations arise from various causes. In some instances those who were responsible for building the schoolhouses possessed about as much light consciousness as the Eskimo in his igloo construction. In others, community pride in a group of trees that cast their flickering and intermittent shadows and glare upon the desks of the embryonic scholar is the contributor to such violations.

Today the eyes are being called upon to adjust themselves to closer and more complex distances. The need for sudden focusing seems to be on the increase. The motion picture, the flashing signs, the speeding automobile and its glaring lights are all taking their toll in work from those centers which give us vision. It seems only reasonable to expect that those of us who are responsible for the environment of the child should apply those principles which already are known regarding sight conservation.

A few suggestions in regard to the environment in which the child reads may be listed as follows:

1. It is better to have the light diffused evenly throughout the room.
2. Maps, charts, or reference material should neither be shoved off into dark corners nor placed in too strong light.
3. Light must not glare on the book from overhead or any other angle. Care must be taken that light does not shine directly into the reader's face or eyes.
4. Shadows on part of the page will cause eye-strain through regressive movements and disruption of regular eye movements.



5. The teacher should insist that the child sit straight, not necessarily stiff but erect at his desk. The material should be so placed that he gets a straight eye focus upon the page and not the sloping one that is so common.

6. The foot candle measurement should be for
- a. Average work and reading from 10 to 20
  - b. Fine work and print, sewing, from 20 to 30
  - c. Fine visual work over long period from 30 to 50

*The Measurement of Lighting.* Today, thanks to modern invention, it is no longer necessary to guess the amount of light that is in the room at each desk or the persistency with which this light permeates. The light meter which tells the story may be borrowed from the local light company or can be purchased at a nominal sum.

*Suggestions for Remedying Faulty Lighting Conditions.* In some schools, rooms where light meter readings show only hallway illumination, certainly the addition of more windows will remedy the conditions to some degree. In the selection of window types to be installed those with heavy sashes should be avoided, for they invariably throw shadows into the room that handicap the reader. Community pride in sylvan beauty usually can be resisted successfully when the parents are shown by a scientific measuring device that lighting conditions are far below those considered to be necessary for sight preservation.

In one school with which the writer is familiar, marked improvement in lighting conditions was obtained by placing the desks diagonally across the rooms. In this instance, removal of a few offending trees and rearrangement of the desks caused a marked decrease in the amount of eye difficulties. There seems little reason to question the fact that proper lighting will result in not only improvement of reading abilities and habits but improvement as well in physical and emotional adjustments.

*Furniture and Reading Comfort.* We have advanced the frontiers of psychological and philosophical thought to that point where we no longer believe that torture is a necessary concomitant of learning. Still, examination of much of our furniture might raise the question as to whether or not we are getting this thought into practice.

A short time ago the writer had occasion to visit a school where the old principle of physical discipline was being applied in all its vigor. Youngsters were seated at desks where their feet dangled limply at varying distances from the floor. It seems that the teacher could at least have put some cracker boxes under the seats so that the children could have obtained some relief within this torture chamber. I would have liked very much to place the teacher in the same position, give her a copy of Einstein's latest edition and tell her



to read rapidly, get the thought, and tell me in her own words just what the writer had to say. I'd be willing to wager that after she had dangled her legs for awhile, had turned sideways, sat on her foot, and experienced the joys that can be experienced only by sitting on an adamant, concave-convex surface, that she would have had some doubt as to the values to be derived from reading and would have been lacking somewhat in appreciation of the refinements of American culture.

Yes, comfort is one aspect of a good reading program which should not be overlooked. The environment should be "homy" and satisfying. Shelves, bookcases, and tables should be within easy access of the child. The classroom and the library should be the child's workshop; a place where he can look through the thousands of book-windows for aid and guidance in his investigations of the world today, of yesterday, and tomorrow.

*Reading Materials.* In the building of this workshop, the selection of proper materials should not be overlooked; materials that are easily manipulated by the child, materials that are conducive to sight conservation in general, and materials that can contribute to the mental growth of all children regardless of maturity rates, interests, or abilities. This is no small order. Special material for special cases is not always readily available. Much can be obtained, however, from the various foundations such as those interested in sight conservation, the hard of hearing, or the mentally retarded. Materials such as the *Boys and Girls Newspaper* and other current publications may contribute to a solution of some reading problems that are not too severe. Very often, also, the teacher, the librarian, or the children themselves, can construct materials which will be of a distinct advantage in the learning process. A particular problem in this regard are those children who are normal or advanced in interest age but markedly retarded in reading ability. The boy of twelve may have a reading age on the primary level but object strenuously to reading about Bunny Rabbit or Peter Pig. It is here that considerable ingenuity must be used in providing materials for those who are maladjusted in development rates.

#### PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF A GOOD READING PROGRAM

*Maturity Rate Differences.* The basis for the mechanical and mental habits of reading are largely physiological. Therefore, physical maturation is an extremely important factor in determining reading readiness. Furthermore, reading requires at least four types of development for satisfactory learning; the motor, the intellectual, the emotional, and the social. Therefore, no method for determining

reading readiness can be adequate without taking into consideration the psychological and the sociological aspects of the maturing child.

For first grade entrants, two phases of readiness should be measured; the auditory and the visual. The auditory test battery should include tests of span, fusion, perception, acuity, and frequency range. The visual readiness tests should involve the measurement of letter form, word form, and phonetic elements.

Usually the school examination does not proceed further than the measurement of auditory acuity, and often this measurement is only cursory. The examination should proceed further, however, and include a measurement of the child's auditory perceptual level.

In the fields of visual measurements, tests have been devised so that a teacher may detect difficulties and thereby refer them to a qualified eye specialist for treatment if such treatment is necessary. All the tests for this phase of the problem are used with the Keystone Ophthalmic Telebinocular. They require only about ten minutes to give and evidences of faulty vision, acuity, eye coordination, eye muscle imbalances, far-sightedness, near-sightedness, and astigmatism may be quickly checked.

It has been found that more than half of the severely disabled readers require a specialist's attention before the teacher is able to make much progress in reading instruction.

Kinesthetic imagery also is very closely allied to maturation. Evidences of non-matured or faulty kinesthetic sense may be evidenced by poor eye coordination, handwriting, and in some instances by speech defects. Here the teacher may not be too concerned about these difficulties unless they fail to disappear as maturity proceeds. Poor eye coordination oftentimes may be improved, or perhaps we should say encouraged to mature, more rapidly by the use of 24 point type and a larger space between the lines. The pupil who has entered the intermediate grades and still has poor eye coordination should be taken in hand immediately and the large type, line space, kind of instruction should be begun at once. Here again the opportunity is provided for the teacher and librarian working cooperatively to provide and produce materials that will aid in the solutions of these problems.

*Physical Health.* Mental and physical health are so closely associated that one cannot legitimately be considered without the other. Faulty physical health adjustments may throw the mind into a state of turmoil and collapse while, on the other hand, a faulty mental adjustment may cause as serious consequences in physical health. Those problems of pronounced illness that present serious problems to all of those concerned with the reading program are by no means

the only ones which should warrant serious attention. Disturbances resulting from slight endocrine unbalance or malnutrition may be as serious from an educational standpoint as more obvious health disturbances and they may prove to be even more baffling.

The same may be said, also, of auditory and visual defects; those defects which are not so obvious but nevertheless play an important part in emotional adjustment. Physical anomalies, too, may cause in a child the development of attitudes of withdrawal or of compensation that may prove of serious consequence if thoughtful recognition is not given them in the pursuance of reading instruction. Likewise, fatigue factors resulting from poor mental or physical health adjustment, environmental conditions which involve temperature, humidity, and air circulation must all be taken into account.

#### PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE READING PROGRAM

*Mental Health.* During the past decade much more emphasis is being placed upon the mental health of children than at any other period of the school's evolution. Any reading program which fails to make use of the large body of materials concerning the child and child nature is certainly failing to perform effectively its function.

The outworn theory of formal discipline has been proved largely fallacious through the medium of research and the resultant concepts have revolutionized the approach to teaching techniques. Instead of forcing the child to read materials that are distasteful to him, every effort is made to create a genuine passion for reading through a well selected subject-matter and a variety of attack. Attention is being paid to each individual child's interest and, although these interests may be somewhat narrow at first, he is carefully encouraged and guided into an expansion of them into various fields. His attitudes are carefully guarded and pronounced aversions to desirable materials are not allowed to develop. In the past grave crimes have been committed in the names of Sir Walter Scott and even Robert Louis Stevenson. Pronounced aversions have been created which result in the pupils' solemn avowal that when their school days are over they will never read the so-called classics. As a result they often have gone to the other extreme and read only the trashiest of material. The problem of attitude is one of great importance and must be recognized as such in any reading program. The classrooms may have every physical comfort and convenience that money and ingenuity can provide but this is of little worth if those administering the reading program do not understand child nature and do not formulate and administer their techniques according to this knowledge. Furthermore, they must be equipped with those intangibles that mean much

in the lives of children, a serene temperament, a quiet but enthusiastic manner, a personality that inspires love and confidence with those whom they are expected to guide along the intricate pathways of learning.

*Maturity Rate Difference.* Children vary at least as much in their rate of mental development as they do physiologically. Regardless of this knowledge, our educational program still revolves largely upon the old assumption that at the age of six all children are physiologically, psychologically, and sociologically mature enough to learn to read.

All the responsibility for such a condition cannot be placed upon the educators. Lack of knowledge of the principles of maturation on the part of parents has caused community pressures to develop which are often difficult for teachers and administrators to combat. All too often, if little Johnny attends school for six months and does not learn to read, the attitude soon develops that the teacher is inefficient. Here, then, is an inference that a good reading program involves, also, a carefully planned program of parental education which will lead to more community enlightenment in regard to child growth and development.

*Intellectual Maturation.* In general, there are two causes for differences in maturity rates: the hereditary and the environmental. Heredity appears to set the rate at which a child is capable of developing, but environment determines how nearly this potential rate is maintained. Some of those factors which enter to retard maturation are illness, emotional maladjustment, lack of motivation, lack of mental stimulation, and irregular or chronic absence from school.

In any reading program, differentiation must be made between two types of retarded pupils, (1) those who are mentally deficient and (2) those who are temporarily retarded. In the latter case, retardation is due to extraneous or environmental causes and the retardation may be completely cured, or at least greatly lessened if suitable procedures are followed. However, in the case of permanently backward children, whose handicap is inborn and may range from slightly below the normal to the lowest levels of feeble-mindedness, the aim of educational efforts may be entirely different. The determining factors here are largely dependent upon the degrees of mental deficiency.

The same methods may be used with both types. A point of difference may exist, however, in application. This difference arises from the fact that the temporarily backward child, if appropriate remedial measures are applied, will make much more rapid progress to a far higher level than the permanently retarded. With the former

group, also, there will not be the necessity for laying such stress on the initial stages of instruction. Good practice will require that provision be made for exercises progressing to a much higher level of difficulty. With the former group, too, much more attention must be given to discovery of causes for retardation. Here, an even more thorough study must be made of the physical and mental life of the child to discover the real causes for his difficulty.

In the planning of the reading program for those who are exceedingly slow in maturity rate, recognition must be given the fact that it should not be too markedly differentiated from that of the regular group, for, there is nothing that will destroy the morale of the children more quickly than to feel themselves completely segregated from the others in their school work. Furthermore, the parents and their desires must be taken into consideration in the initiation of the child's program.

The subject of mental maturation is such a comprehensive subject that it is possible here to discuss only one or two of the implications it holds to reading instruction. However, before passing on to the next topic, mention must be made of the children who are accelerated in their mental maturation. For them, a heavy enrichment of materials must be provided; materials which are advanced and rich in thought content but simple enough in construction not to tax too heavily the child's knowledge of the mechanics of reading.

The fact should be pointed out here, also, that slow maturation even of the hereditary type is not always a valid criterion of mental deficiency. Although maturation usually proceeds at the rate at which it starts when no environmental catastrophies intervene, there are children whose rate of maturation may be slow at first and increase rapidly as age increases and there are also those who continue maturing for a longer time than others. One of the best illustrations of this difference in maturity rate can be found between the sexes. Here, studies have shown that girls are accelerated in maturation about two years more than boys. These are important points to consider in the planning and initiation of any reading program.

*Emotional Maturation.* Differences in rate of physical growth, differences in intellectual growth, differences in social opportunities, and even differences in climatic condition may contribute to differences in emotional maturation. These variations may cause a great many complications to develop in the classroom but in a program of reading they are probably more closely allied to the factor of interest. For, child interests are largely concerned with the natural urges present within the child as a result of his biological inheritance. The direction which they take are to a very large extent dependent upon



the combinations of life situations which the child experiences. As a consequence, each child is a person with combinations of desires and interests of his own. Therefore, one purpose of a reading program always should be to stimulate, taking into account his inner urges and his acquired desires and interests. In this way he can be led on and on to further interests and further learnings. A program which does not so provide will lead to a pronounced dislike for the learning situations provided by the school and a skepticism and cynicism toward adult pronouncements.

*The Relationship of Behavior Problems to Reading Disabilities.* Both experimental and empirical evidence indicates that behavior problems are often directly traceable to reading disabilities. Often sensitiveness will cause a child to withdraw from his group, to develop attitudes of dislike for school, or cause irregular attendance. On the other hand, reading disability may cause him to seek compensation by gaining the teachers' and pupils' attention through tantalizing or obstreperous behavior. Any good reading program, then, will provide for procedures in reading instruction that will not only develop better readers but will avoid undesirable developments in attitude and emotional unbalance.

#### SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF A GOOD READING PROGRAM

*Maturity Rate Differences.* As there are differences in maturity rates physiologically, intellectually, and emotionally, likewise are there differences sociologically. These may arise through differences in physiological, intellectual, or emotional growth or they may be aggravated by parental status or desire for status. Obviously, in our democracy, there is no place for the existence of class distinctions. In the organization of any program or in the selection of the materials for this program, care should be exercised that true democracy prevails and that the children are imbued with the spirit of democracy.

There is a problem, though, that presents itself at this point. In the not too distant past the gifted child was considered amply able to take care of himself. As a result of this belief, these children were neglected in the schools in order that the teachers could devote their time and energies to the children of lesser ability. The view was held by many that this was entirely justifiable for it was thought better to keep all children in a school class as nearly as possible at the same level of intellectual attainment and development, or, at least, to make every effort possible to narrow any gap that might exist between those who could achieve with little difficulty and those who must exert supreme effort to achieve at all. Teachers proceeded upon the assumption that by providing the same materials for all and by



demanding that all master a similar subject-matter content, true democracy was being achieved or at least approached. Today we realize that true democracy is not achieved in any such manner; that providing the same opportunity for all is not providing equal opportunity for anyone. Under this system the child with the lowest intelligence was getting all the "breaks." The gifted child succeeded in spite of the system, not because of it. Little thought was given to the fact that society was seriously handicapping itself by allowing such a condition to exist. Little consideration was given to the fact that social progress was to a large extent dependent upon the discovery and development of the gifted child or that this child through his own right was entitled to receive as much attention from teachers and from society as the less favorably endowed individuals.

Today the results of hundreds of research studies in the field are causing us to reinterpret our educational philosophy regarding the gifted child. We realize the importance of giving this child an equal opportunity for physical and mental development. We recognize that true democracy is dependent upon a provision for every child to develop as nearly as possible to the optimum of his potentialities. He must take his place in our society. The reading program should be so planned that it aids him in finding the way.

*Inadequacy of Reader Series in Meeting Needs.* Quite obviously a single series of readers cannot even approach meeting the needs of any classroom group. Furthermore, these needs may not be met satisfactorily by even a number of different series. For, the mere addition of more of the same material may not necessarily serve the purpose desired. Often the pupil, upon finding the same selection that has already been read or the same story that is told under a new title in a slightly different way, may become disgusted. Also, the material may have been selected with the idea or objective primarily in mind of introducing the child to the literature of the race rather than upon the basis of the various items suggested in this discussion. Again, the selections found in these readers deal with a type of story or content in which only the more literary half of the children are interested. Or, on the other hand, the content may be so childish that the duller and older children who are interested in romance, adventure, and reality, find little satisfaction in spending time plodding mentally through such material.

Another difficulty which the teacher of reading would experience in many of the series of readers is that material which is of particular interest to girls or of particular interest to boys is seldom included as reading selections. Because of the fact that an attempt is made to strike a happy medium, material is included which it is hoped both

boys and girls will tolerate. Unfortunately the subject has been approached from the standpoint of the material which will be the less objectionable rather than from the standpoint of that which will be the most suitable. As a consequence, the teacher should supplement the reading even though access to a number of supplementary readers is provided. This inadequacy of material can be overcome in a measure by the inclusion of a large number of library and home reading books that appeal to the particular interests of individual pupils; books that appeal particularly to those interests which stimulate the child toward the creation of a healthy mental outlook upon life and generate in him an appreciation of those values in a world culture which have led and may lead the individual and society to higher levels of economic and social adjustment.

#### CONCLUSION

It is not difficult to conclude that those concerned with the reading program carry a heavy responsibility and are being confronted by constant challenge. The responsibility rests in not only teaching the child how to read; the mechanical aspects, the mental aspects; but the responsibility carries over into the physiological, psychological, and sociological health of the child. Nothing that affects the child as a developing personality can afford to be overlooked. Furthermore, the society of which the child is a member, its welfare, its progressive evolvment, is of vital concern. It is necessary, then, that those responsible for the reading program have, after all of the contributions are incorporated, a plan which has involved the weighing of values in practically every province of human knowledge.

## HOW TO ADAPT READING INSTRUCTION TO THE VARYING NEEDS OF CHILDREN<sup>1</sup>

CLARENCE R. STONE, *Berkeley, California*

The best way to obtain an impressive view of the need for better primary reading from the standpoint of adapting instruction to the varying needs of the children is through a supervisory survey of a school system. In making such a survey conclusions should be reached on the basis of extensive observations as well as on the basis of the test data and other statistics.

*An Extended Survey of a System.* The writer has had an unusual opportunity to make such a study extending over a period of one and a half years in a system consisting of thirteen schools ranging in size from three rooms to twenty rooms. The supervisory survey began early in the second half of the school year during which time a reading committee with the writer acting as consultant was formulating a new course of study in reading.

*The Foreign Population.* This school system has a considerable per cent of the children coming from homes in which a foreign language is spoken, such as Italian and Mexican. However, children who can not speak English upon entering the first grade are rare. In the opinion of the writer the school staff had greatly overestimated the foreign language handicap as a factor underlying failures and seriously retarded readers. On the other hand failure to adapt the reading instruction to the varying needs of the children regardless of grade placement was, in the writer's opinion, a very much more important factor. Detailed facts in this connection will be presented.

### COURSE OF STUDY AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

*An Inflexible Course.* The reading course in use bore the date of 1928. Following a statement of general objectives, the course contained a statement of specific objectives for each grade or related grades and a detailed discussion of ways and means of realizing each of the specific objectives. A course of minimum of essentials including required material in the basic state readers and supplementary readers was included. The course as printed required that the primer and first reader of the California State Series<sup>2</sup> be covered during the first

<sup>1</sup>Based on address at meeting of California Teachers' Association, Northern Section, Sacramento, November 26, 1935.

<sup>2</sup>Frank M. Freeman, and Others, *Child Story Readers*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1929.

grade. This requirement, however, had been officially changed so as to move the first reader up to the second grade. The primer is one of the most difficult of primers and the first reader is one of the most difficult of first readers. Easier, supplementary books, however, were available through the central library of supplementary sets.

The main point to be noted here is that the course of study contained no provisions for facilitating adaptation of the instruction to needs with respect to poor readers. So far as the course of study was concerned all pupils in a class or half-grade throughout the system in the primary grades were required to cover the same basic reading material. Not only did the pupils, as a rule, in a particular half grade in each school vary greatly in reading level and instructional needs, but there was also a marked difference between the type of children entering the first grade, let us say, in schools in the best part of town and those entering schools in the poorest part of town. Furthermore, the schools in the best part of town had kindergartens, but not all of those in the poorest parts of town had such advantage. Yet so far as the course of study was concerned all would go through the same mill. In practice those who were obviously failures were required to repeat and the common practice was to repeat the same basic material.

*A Common Defect in Reading Courses.* Upon examining recent courses of study in reading, the writer has been surprised to find, as a rule, definite uniform requirements of basic reading material to be covered in each grade or half grade in the primary grades. Sometimes the requirement includes page assignments in several texts. Such inflexible requirements, if followed by the teacher, make it impossible for her to adapt instruction to the varying needs of her pupils.

*Uniform Material Regardless of Ability.* In the main the teachers were following the requirements of the course of study, using the same basic material with all the children in the class regardless of wide differences in attainment and needs within the class. Very evidently, as a rule, the material being used by the class was too difficult for the poorer readers. Herein lies one of the principal sources of wrong attitudes and wrong habits in reading.

*Much Time Devoted to Vocabulary Drill.* The use of material too difficult for many of the children led to the spending of large amounts of time in blackboard drill upon long lists of words and phrases placed upon the blackboard previous to the reading period. Such practice was not followed by all teachers but it was a very common practice. The traditional type of formal non-intrinsic type of instruction and drill in phonics, regularly during separate

periods, was also very common. Inevitably with large amounts of time being spent in formal drills in vocabulary preparation and in phonics, the amount of reading material that could be covered during the remaining program time allotted to reading would be seriously limited. The writer is convinced that Dr. Gates is right in his claim that there is much waste involved in such formal practices. Along with the use of material too difficult for many children the use of large amounts of time in wasteful word-recognition drill operates to limit seriously the amount of material read.

*Beginning Reading.* The methods and materials used in the earliest stages in reading are very important.

No material was provided the teachers for the prebook stage. In the main the teachers were following what has been called by some writers the experience method or activity approach to book reading. Under this plan there is a period of blackboard and chart reading based upon the children's immediate experiences and correlated with project activities. The reading of the cooperatively formulated chart based upon a common experience is a prominent feature. Some teachers, however, provided a more direct approach to the first-book reading. In the judgment of the writer, the teachers were inadequately supplied with equipment essential for adequate preparation for early book reading and certain very important techniques developed in recent years in beginning reading for use with children who have difficulty in getting satisfactorily started in beginning reading were very little in evidence. Although material very much easier than the basic state primer was available in the central library of supplementary readers, most of the teachers were using the basic primer for the earliest beginning book reading.

After a year's trial of a new plan cooperatively formulated and included in the new course of study seventeen out of twenty-three first-grade teachers, in anonymously responding to a questionnaire, indicated that they liked the new approach to reading better than the one being used previously.

*Type of Teachers in the Primary Grades.* With some exceptions, the teachers would be rated good, and there were, as is usually the case, some excellent ones. The main obstacles to better results did not lie in the direction of teaching ability, but rather in a lack of administrative provisions and classroom practices for adapting the instruction in reading to the varying needs of the children regardless of grade placement. No doubt these conditions are common to many school systems.



## AN EXPERIMENT IN ADAPTING INSTRUCTION TO NEEDS

A capital example of the main points which have been made will be described somewhat in detail.

*A Group of Non-readers, High First Grade.* A reading lesson with a group of eight children in the high first grade, a group consisting of the poorer readers in the room was observed.

*Vocabulary Drill.* The teacher was conducting vocabulary drill preparatory to a story in the first part of the basic first reader (Child-Story). A long list of words and a long list of expressions taken from the story were upon the blackboard. The teacher pronounced the words one by one and each time the pupils, in concert, pronounced the words after her. She then repeated the same procedure with three children responding. The same practice was followed with the word groups or expressions. She then tested and drilled the children upon the recognition and pronunciation of the words and word groups. After about twenty minutes of this drill for vocabulary preparation the teacher said to the observer on the side, "After I do all that these children can not read the story in the book."

*Unable to Read a Preprimer.* The observer ventured to remark that the reading material might be too difficult for the children. He asked permission to try out the group with some easier material. The easiest material on hand was a set of rather difficult preprimers. The group was tried out with this material without preliminary vocabulary preparation. None of the children could read the material independently. They knew very few or no words. None knew enough words to read the material without being constantly helped with the words.

*Beginning All Over As An Experiment.* The observer then suggested that an experiment be undertaken with these children involving starting the group again from the bottom with some new material, and the teacher agreed. She was provided with some of the preparatory chart material and the workbook material preparatory to the *Webster Primer*, also the manual. Each child was furnished a copy of the workbook. In three weeks the group completed the twenty-one pages of workbook material preparatory to the *Webster Primer*. The writer observed the teacher several times during this period and saw very good teaching. She utilized the plans indicated in the workbook and in the manual.

The writer taught the group during their first reading period with the *Webster Primer*. They were all able to do straight ahead reading with only occasional help and completed the first story unit of eight pages in 20 minutes.

*Successful Primer Reading.* The group continued this plan the remainder of the semester and all the children made very satisfactory progress. The teacher was much pleased with her accomplishments with these children.

*Summary of Diagnosis.* The difficulty was that the children had never acquired a simple beginning vocabulary in reading and consequently the difficult first-reader material the teacher was using with the children in accordance with the requirements in the printed course of study was entirely too difficult for the children.

#### SOME STATISTICAL RESULTS: PRIMARY GRADES

To make an adequate study of the problems involved in connection with primary reading a certain amount of survey data is essential.

*Data for Beginning Third Grade Pupils.* Figures 1 and 2 show the distribution of reading grade scores for all the children in beginning third grade in the system in September and the age distribution of approximately these same children at the beginning of high third grade in February. A comparison of exactly the same groups has not been possible because the reading test was given in September and no reading test was given in February, while the age-grade reports were made in February and were not made in September.

*Average Results, but Many Seriously Retarded in Spite of High Per Cent of Non-Promotions.* Figure 1 shows that the reading achievement in this system at the beginning of the third grade was about that of the average for the country for the *Metropolitan Primary Reading Test*. Twenty pupils, or four per cent, are accelerated approximately a year or more in reading while fifty-three, or eleven per cent, are seriously retarded in reading to the extent of approximately one year or more.

Figure 2 gives the age distribution for these children and throws a great deal of light upon the whole reading problem and also raises a number of questions closely related to the reading problems in the primary grades. Even allowing a half year for various contingencies which operate to cause children to fall behind during the first two grades, we still find that over one-third of these children are over-age. Furthermore, a large number, 21 per cent, are overage more than a year at the middle of the third year.

*Very Few Accelerated in Reading.* In contrast to the 35 per cent who are overage more than a half year, less than 2 per cent are under age more than half a year. This, of course, means that the policy of the system has been one of a relatively large per cent of

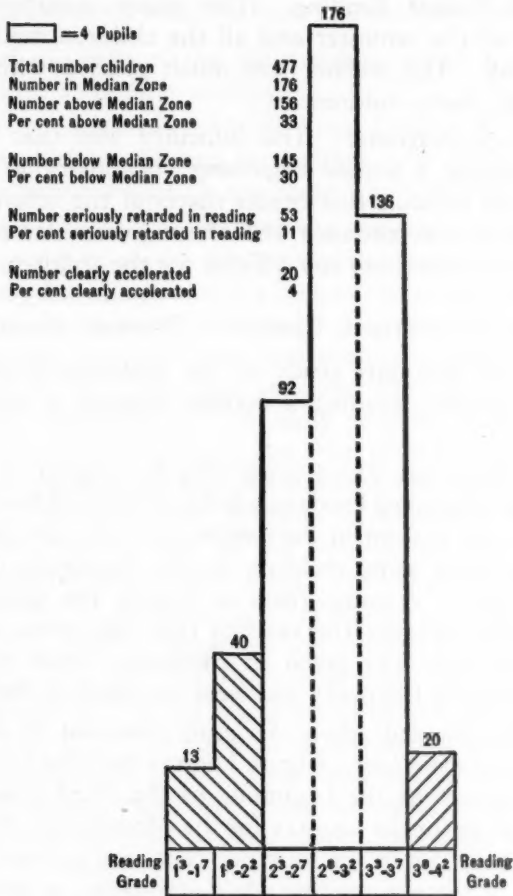


Figure 1. Grade Scores of 477 Low Third Grade Pupils in One School System on the Metropolitan Primary Reading Test, September, 1934

failures of promotion in the first and second grades and that special promotion of gifted children is very rare.

*Some Related Problems.* Various solutions have been suggested to solve the major problems indicated by this study. Some of these proposals are listed below in the form of questions.

Will the natural experience method with reading instruction integrated entirely in an activity program solve the problem of better reading that adapts learning conditions to the varying needs of children?

Will postponement of formal instruction in reading beyond the low first grade solve the problem of non-readers and seriously retarded readers?

Should non-promotions be discontinued and children be classified according to chronological age?

If non-promotions are allowed, on what basis should pupils be promoted and what weight should be given to reading attainment?

How may a flexible course of study in beginning reading be organized and administered so as to facilitate adaption of reading instruction to the varying needs of the children in a particular class, grade, or half grade in a particular school and in different schools?

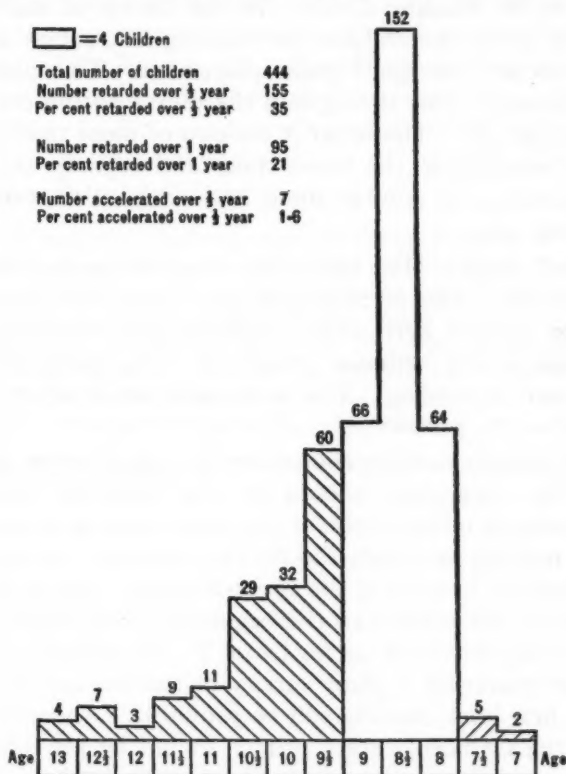


Figure 2. Age Distribution of High Third Grade Pupils in One School System, February, 1935

#### ADAPTING INSTRUCTION TO VARYING NEEDS

*A Flexible Course.* Uniform course of study requirements in reading by grades should be abandoned. For this school system a course in reading by reading levels, eight levels for the first three grades, was formulated.<sup>1</sup> The standards of attainment for each

<sup>1</sup> Available from San Jose Board of Education, 408 Almaden Avenue, San Jose, California; price, 75 cents.

level are indicated on a left-hand page. On the right-hand page available materials suitable for the level are listed in two parallel columns, one list for those making normal or better progress in reading, and one list for pupils in grades above needing to be instructed upon this particular reading level. This double track listing of books is to make it possible to reserve materials appropriate in interest and difficulty for groups retarded in reading with respect to their grade placement.<sup>1</sup>

*Grouping by Reading Levels.* In the course of study, teachers are urged to group the children for reading instruction according to reading levels and disregard grade placement. Two plans of doing this are indicated. One is to group the pupils within one room into two or more groups. The other is for two or more teachers to cooperate, have reading at the same time, and regroup the pupils for reading regardless of regular room and grade placement. This is called the unit plan.

*The Early Stages.* The beginning stages in reading offer the most difficult problem. Too often pupils get a poor start in reading and remain poor readers ever after. Failure and repeating the grade or half grade is the common procedure with many of those who get a poor start in reading. The survey referred to shows that policy does not solve the problem.

The beginning reading should be the very easiest that can be devised. The vocabulary should be very carefully limited and a maximum amount of repetition of the vocabulary in a rich variety of interesting reading activities should be provided. In the course of study referred to, Level I is the prebook stage. No child should be advanced from this stage into the beginning book stage until he has attained the objectives set up for Level I. By using the new type of flexible chart materials a great variety of reading activities preparatory to the first book reading can be provided. An easier beginning book than the California state primer should be provided. Within the last five years more progress has been made in the publication of beginning books in the form of preprimers and primers that are satisfactory from the standpoint of simplicity and interest than during all the time before 1930.

*Much Easy Reading.* The only way to develop a real interest and joy in reading and get fluency and accuracy in reading is to have an abundance of reading sufficiently easy for the child. Consequently, the child should not be advanced from one level of difficulty in reading

<sup>1</sup> This material may be found in *Teachers' Guide and Course of Study in Reading, Grades One to Six*. San Jose, California: San Jose School Department, 1935, pp. 10-22; also Clarence R. Stone, *Better Primary Reading*. St. Louis: Webster Publishing Company, 1936, pp. 25-37.



to the next level until he is ready, until he reads with facility on the lower level. His promotion from one grade or half grade to the next should not be based on his reading, but upon his general development and ability to profit in the total program of activities in the next higher grade or half grade. The child should never repeat the same reading book, but instead should have fresh, interesting material on the same level.

*Difficulties in the Experience Method.* The new experience-activity method of teaching beginning reading results in many children getting a poor start in reading, although it is an excellent plan for those who easily learn words. The others are confronted with too large a vocabulary and too difficult reading units to be able to make a successful start. In this connection the reader is referred to the article by the writer in the *Elementary School Journal*, October, 1935, which closes with the following paragraph:

Project activities involving pupil purposing, planning, co-operating, and creating are an invaluable part of primary education. Nevertheless, the theory that all the reading activities must be related to, and grow out of, these activities is psychologically unsound, unduly restricts the program in reading, and in practice fails to provide adequately for the instructional needs of many children. Incidental, correlated, and integrated reading has distinct and unique values, but it should parallel rather than supplant a systematic and sequential plan in beginning reading.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Clarence R. Stone, "The Current Experience Method in Beginning Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXVI (October, 1935), 109.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEW TYPE REPORT CARD

HAROLD BENNETT BROOKS, *Principal,*  
*George Washington Junior High School, Long Beach*

The fundamental assumption that a democratic, easy atmosphere of freedom and participation is necessary to the best thinking and mental growth is being genuinely accepted by many educators. As a result, classroom and administrative procedures in an increasing number of school systems are being evaluated in terms of this assumption. One of the questions arising as procedures are studied with this idea in mind is How can report cards and marking systems contribute to greater liberation for the pupil and the teacher? In the last eight years there has been widespread interest in this problem and more than one hundred magazine articles have been written concerning marks and report cards.

It is the purpose of this study to review the leading articles published since 1934<sup>1</sup> relating to report cards and marking systems, and to answer, if possible, the following questions: (1) What is the present attitude toward the traditional type of report? (2) What are the basic principles and purposes underlying the new type report card? (3) How can report cards and marking systems contribute to greater liberation for the pupil and the teacher? (4) What are the specific characteristics of the new type report to the home?

### PRESENT ATTITUDE TOWARD THE TRADITIONAL TYPE OF REPORT

There is a deep seated dissatisfaction with the school report card as it has been administered up to this time. The traditional report is doomed because it has failed to pass the test in light of modern research and knowledge advanced in the fields of psychology, mental hygiene, and social philosophy. These statements are conclusions from a study made by Jones (12)<sup>2</sup> in which replies were received from seven hundred representative educators in every state in the union. It is apparent from the evidence available that this dissatisfaction is shared by pupils, parents, and educators.

Pupils believe the traditional type of report is unsatisfactory. Ball (5) studied the attitude of sixth grade pupils and found that they

<sup>1</sup> The three articles in the first section of the references at the end of article contain selected bibliographies of articles appearing before 1935.

<sup>2</sup> Numbers in parentheses refer to the references at the end of article.

expressed their dissatisfaction clearly and definitely. Howe (11) reports that several hundred senior high school students were asked to tell what a grade meant to them. Some of the answers in order of frequency were:

- |                          |                                     |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Quality of work       | 11. Effort                          |
| 2. Spur to do better     | 13. Payment for work                |
| 3. University entrance   | 20. Economic or social<br>advantage |
| 4. Something worth while | 25. A goal                          |
| 5. Accomplishment        | 28. Citizenship in school           |
| 7. Progress              |                                     |

Howe concluded from this study of student opinion as follows:

It is easily seen that students did not have a clear conception of the grade as the teacher might give it. The factors of content, skills, personal worth, and social attitudes are there, although indefinite and confused.

Parents believe the traditional type of report can be improved. Howe (11) reports that the parents desired that citizenship qualities be given greater emphasis on the reports to the home. Maurer (14) believes that there is a growing conviction that grades and marks are artificial stimuli, the values of which may be more apparent than real. He is of the opinion that parents are coming to share this conviction. He states:

Many parents are coming to believe that results of an education do not readily lend themselves to such superficial measurement and some parents have even intimated that marks may represent a considerable degree of guesswork on the part of the teacher.

Upjohn (17) states that some parents look favorably upon retaining comparative marks. He believes that in some cases this is due to the fact that their children get gratifying marks and so give them a vicarious basis for feeling superior to less fortunate parents.

Dissatisfaction with the school report card has been expressed frequently by educators and many causes for this attitude are apparent.

Marks frequently have been used in an undesirable way to motivate the learning of the pupils. Upjohn (17) concludes:

It is charged . . . . that the principal reason that teachers like them is because they furnish the teacher with a means of exerting pressure upon pupils.

The problem and project methods were devised to stimulate teaching and learning based on life situations. The formal reports to the home have been found to be inconsistent with the newer ideas regarding classroom procedure. Cole (7) studied the elementary

school activity procedure and concluded that the outcomes could not be adequately expressed to parents unless more complete and specific statements were included in the report. It is his opinion that

For a pupil engaging in the solving of problems and the developing of projects as group activities, the A, B, C, marks are not only inadequate but wellnigh unintelligible.

There was a time when the chief objective in most schools was to get boys and girls to memorize the facts presented in the various courses. To the pupils who could recite or write the most facts from memory were given the highest marks expressed either in per cent or in the letters of a five point marking scale. Today, however, there are many who believe that other goals are also worth emphasis. The view is expressed that the report should describe pupil achievement in terms of the present aims and purposes of education. Maurer (14) states the opinion that

While it may be true that grades and marks may, in a measure, reflect the ability of a student to master so much formal subject-matter as presented in a textbook, there is reason to suspect that present day education must concern itself with matters of greater importance.

Pugsley studied the report cards used in representative elementary schools in New York State. He found that

Only nine and one-half per cent of the cards studied made any attempt whatever to state in definite phraseology what the aims and purposes of education are. Is it not unfortunate that the school is passing up such a valuable opportunity to help the parents think as the school is thinking?

He also states:

If we had been taking the child's personality, social, and individual discovery and growth as seriously as we have his physical whereabouts, we should today have a vastly different system of child accounting in which significant things would be taken into consideration.

Howe (11) of Sacramento Senior High School has reported a comprehensive study of marks and reports. He states that after a year's study three faculty committees came to the conclusion that there were eight deficiencies in grading which could be definitely listed as follows:

1. A lack of standards in accounting clear to teacher, pupil, and parent
2. A lack of definiteness in the grade
3. A lack of knowledge of the factors in the grade
4. A lack of understanding of the terms employed in any system so far devised
5. A need for stressing human values
6. A need for greater objectivity in the grade

7. A need for systematizing terminology and the meaning of terms
8. A need for fitting factors and descriptive terms to the general objectives of education and to the specific objectives of each course

#### BASIC PRINCIPLES AND PURPOSES UNDERLYING THE NEW TYPE REPORT CARD

Hill (2) studied 443 school report forms used by a wide range of public schools. He concluded that the report card should:

1. Represent the true spirit, purposes, and functions of the school.  
The school, therefore, cannot afford to have its purposes and its methods regularly and consistently misrepresented through the medium of a report which . . . ignores the major educational consideration.
2. Reflect educational objectives arrived at only after careful consideration and mature judgment.
3. Change in accord with changes in educational standards and educational philosophy. It must not be static, but careful planning should precede every change.
4. Present a report of achievement that is broad enough to cover all the important educational outcomes—subject achievement, character outcomes and social adjustment, health, and use of leisure.
5. Give an adequate picture of causes as well as of outcomes. Not only should achievement be rated, but also the factors which account for different degrees of achievement should be described.
6. Reflect a complete and sympathetic understanding of the child.
7. Afford a means of reporting flexible enough to account for the peculiar individual abilities of each child.
8. Give an account of pupil progress understandable and interesting to both pupil and parent.
9. Bring about closer cooperation and greater mutual understanding of home and school.
10. Provide for reciprocal reporting. The parent should be allotted a portion of the report on which to write his or her suggestions, information, and queries.
11. Rate achievement in relation to the basic abilities and capacities of the child.
12. Rate achievement by means of valid and reliable marking systems. It should 'describe that which it purports to describe' and report only that which can be described reliably.



13. Conform to reasonable standards of form and appearance. The report should be attractive.

Warren (18) studied the reactions of teachers to the new plan and a set of principles which should guide the preparation of any plan for pupil reports to the home was drawn up as follows:

1. It is desirable that the child be conscious of the degree of improvement he is making, or failing to make.
2. The child should be conscious of the main facts of the report before it is sent out.
3. Goals of achievement for each subject shall be set up on each grade level.
4. A plan by which the relative standing of each child on standardized objective tests in the fundamentals of reading and arithmetic can be made known to the home, as soon as it seems possible to provide funds or means of carrying out such a program.
5. Preparation of a list of words and terms that may help teachers to describe and explain the reasons for unsatisfactory work, and to relate achievement to capacity to achieve.
6. Provisions through study and additional testing material for enabling teachers to determine more objectively the extent to which a pupil is using his capacities.
7. Modification of the plan of reporting pupil difficulties, so that it may be less time consuming and more positive in operation.
8. The development of a special printed form letter for advising the home at any time that a child is failing to make proper school adjustment in any subject-matter field; such a report planned to bring about a conference between the home and the school.
9. A presentation of the best plans devised last year by teachers for keeping their own class records.
10. The provision for at least four home-reporting dates for all children from grades four and above, in place of the present two dates.
11. The provision for definite ratings in effort as well as achievement in subject matter for junior high school pupils.
12. Continued emphasis upon written comments upon the 'whole' child.

### HOW REPORT CARDS CAN CONTRIBUTE TO GREATER LIBERATION FOR PUPIL AND TEACHER

The four purposes (17) of the report from the school to the home should be, in part at least:

1. To reveal to the parent the strength and weakness of the pupil's work.

In order that this purpose may be achieved the development of the report form should be an experience which is shared by pupil, teacher, and parent. The standards set by the school and the various factors in the evaluations should be clearly understood by all concerned. The pupils should share in making the evaluations regarding the strength and weakness in their own work. Pupils often have excellent ideas on this problem. Ball (5) found that sixth grade pupils believed that a new type report should:

- a. Tell the pupils what part of each subject they are good in, and where they needed to improve, because an 'A' makes you, and everybody, think you're good in everything about that thing, but you may be good in one part of it and poor in another.
- b. Tell the pupils how well they work together.
- c. Tell the pupils what the matter is and how to change it, because 'D' in sportsmanship doesn't do you any good because you don't know just what's the trouble, but if you know you're a poor sport because you're crabby and because you're a quitter, why then you can change that.
- d. Give a clear picture of individual achievement in subject matter, of growth in personality traits, and definite suggestions as to how to improve where improvement is needed.

2. To interpret adequately to the home the type of experience which the school is furnishing to the pupil.

A check list should be provided stating the most significant objectives of the grade or subject. In preparing the list this question should be uppermost: "What should this school do for these children?" Some schools (8) have used statements regarding qualities which make for success. The achievement of each pupil has been evaluated with respect to each of these. Smith (16) studied reports and records as chairman of a committee of the Progressive Education Association. The characteristics of pupils were studied in a scientific manner and a "Manual of Directions for Trait Study" was issued which contained analyses under eight headings. These are:

- a. Responsibility and dependability
- b. Creativeness and imagination

- c. Influence
- d. Inquiring mind
- e. Openmindedness
- f. The power and habit of analysis (the habit of reaching conclusions on the basis of valid evidence)
- g. Social concern
- h. Emotional responsiveness

The pupils and parents should share in stating the objectives and should clearly understand them. It is apparent that emphasis in the report should be placed on human values.

3. To result in the improvement of the quantity and quality of the pupil's work.

The concept of "needing to improve" should be substituted for the idea of "failure." When pupils have a part in stating their own objectives and in making their own evaluations greater interest and improvement may be possible. The elimination of comparative marks arbitrarily given by the teacher may help the pupil take a greater interest in his own education.

4. To enable the school and the home to work effectively together for the growth of the child.

Emphasis should be placed upon the cooperation of the pupil, teacher, and the parent in this enterprise of promoting the growth of the child. A free exchange of ideas should be encouraged in order that everything possible may be done to achieve the outcomes desired by all concerned. In the working together of the home and the school a matter of chief importance will be the growth of the child in personal and social responsibility. If these purposes are realized the report cards can aid in providing greater liberation for the pupils and the teachers.

#### SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEW TYPE

##### REPORT CARD

One of the most adequate new type reports for elementary schools is described by Upjohn (17). This article also contains a reproduction of the report card form. Specific abilities and character traits are evaluated under seventeen main divisions. The first type of school experience listed for pupils of grades four, five, and six is Individual Work and Study Habits, under which are included the following items:

- |                                 |                                    |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Planning work                   | Consulting dictionary for spelling |
| Starting promptly               | Checking and correcting mistakes   |
| Using time and materials wisely | Following directions               |
|                                 | Using originality                  |

From the study of the new forms now in use a few of the specific characteristics of the new type report card can be stated as follows:

1. A three-point rather than a five-point scale should be used where general estimates of pupils' achievement are needed for transcripts and cumulative records. The following letters and terms might be used: R, commendable; S, satisfactory; N, needs to improve.

2. Pupils should be given an opportunity to make out their own reports and give them to the teacher before the final report is issued. In cases where the teacher disagrees with the report as stated by the pupil the evaluations should be discussed by the teacher and the pupil. This procedure should enable the teacher to give more effective individual guidance.

3. On junior and senior high school reports a few of the most important objectives should be stated. The pupils should share in formulating these lists of objectives. Emphasis should be given to items relating to personal responsibility, inquiring mind, social concern, and work habits. In junior high school a separate card for each subject can be used successfully.

4. The marking N (needs to improve) should be used instead of F (failure) as this represents a more wholesome approach to the problem.

5. A place should be provided on the card for comments by teachers and parents. Teachers should help all parents develop a sympathetic understanding of the problem of marks.

### CONCLUSION

To be successful the new plan for reporting to the parents must have the enthusiastic support of all the teachers. The teachers should:

- a. Understand the underlying principles and purposes.
- b. Have opportunity and be willing to make suggestions for improving the plan.

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## THE SCIENCE BACKGROUND OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

VESTA HOLT, *Professor of Biological Science and Head of the  
Department; and* AYMER JAY HAMILTON, *President,  
Chico State College*

"Time marches on," but the traditions of the little red schoolhouse hang like an iron collar about the neck of the educator. He is warned not to question the sanctity of the three R's or to be so irreverent as to adapt them to practical use. However much he may wish to discard the shackles of the past and face the fundamental problems in the development of the child he is constantly reminded that "it was good for Paul and Silas." But much water has flowed under the bridge since the days of Paul and Silas. While human nature may be the same, the environment of our 1936 Pauls and Silases is very different. Are we going to try to educate our children for an era that has gone forever or will we build for the present and the future?

The modern educator approaches the problem by analysis of those experiences which are essential in building a well rounded, integrated individual fitted for life today. His analysis will take into account (1) the child as a living organism considering his physical and mental makeup and his heredity, and (2) his natural and social environment. This study will give the educator a foundation upon which he may base his curriculum. He will then search far and wide for the building materials. The little red schoolhouse will contribute its share of valuable bricks of experience. But the real framework of this building will come from the life of the child. He is living now, not merely preparing to live ten or fifteen years from now. The educator must be an architect who is building at the present for the future. He must recognize that out of the child's present must come a preparation for that future. The child's development must be so directed that he will fit efficiently and happily into an evolving social structure. So his school day must be rich and vital with many experiences perhaps new to the schoolroom.

The evolution of our social environment is in large measure dependent upon the results of scientific investigation. Society is constantly adjusting itself to changes brought about by scientific discoveries. This has a bearing of vast import on the new school curriculum. The need of more science experience in the life of the child has been recognized but has not been met. He needs to know

why fuses blow out, where the rain comes from, how to avoid infection, what makes a motor function, when to go fishing, and many other scientific factors of our modern life.

The lack of science training is the major deficiency of the elementary school teacher. As a consequence very little science has been taught in the elementary schools and the child may enter high school with almost no science training. Secondary science courses have been organized to provide a vocational or a cultural background. The student will take one or two years of science in high school but at best he has contact with only one or two phases of the vast field. He enters college. In California state colleges, by State Board of Education ruling, fourteen units of science are required in lower division. Often here the student follows his interests or whims and so reaches upper division work with a one sided scientific training. Such preparation does not equip the prospective teacher to meet the demands of science in the elementary schools.

An investigation of the interests of the children in the intermediate grades of the elementary school, and an analysis of the training of the great majority of the teachers of these grades will reveal the woeful lack of consideration of children's interest when planning the training program of teachers. One of the writers of this article took advantage of the opportunity to question hundreds of children in grades three to six inclusive regarding their interests. The question asked the child was "What are the things about which you would like to know more if you had someone here who could answer truthfully and completely any question you asked?" Usually the first reaction to this question was, "Do you mean anything, not just school questions?" When they were assured that really *anything* with no limitations was meant their tongues were loosed and they eagerly listed the things that were apparently most important to them at that maturation level. Unfortunately the things about which they wanted to talk were not the things that we ordinarily try to teach them.

When classified the important things to those children fell into the following fields of knowledge: physics, chemistry, astronomy, zoology, botany, bacteriology, anatomy, entomology, etc. In brief they were interested in the physical and biological sciences.

In view of the expressed interests of children in the elementary schools it occurred to this writer that some knowledge of the type of training of teachers in these schools would be helpful in determining whether training institutions were taking into consideration and meeting the needs of teachers as viewed from the standpoint of children's immediate interests in life. Therefore, the transcripts of record of training of nearly five hundred elementary teachers selected

at random from five cities were analysed. It was found that their work in college and university was in the following fields: English, social studies (history, economics, political science, and geography), language, physical education, education, music, and art. Less than 1 per cent of the teachers had done enough work in either the physical sciences or biological sciences to even approach a minor.

Do we or do we not believe that sound educational philosophy takes into consideration the immediate interests of the learner? That fundamentally "education is not acquiring specified subject-matter fixed in advance, but the continuous remaking of life by acquiring subject-matter as it is needed for present behavior?" If we do, then our elementary teachers are largely unfitted for elementary teaching. This is a problem that teacher training institutions must face squarely. To say that the prospective teacher is not interested in the physical and biological sciences is beside the point. The elective system on the adult level is quite all right if the adult is pursuing knowledge merely for the sake of knowledge and without any vocational objective, but if he is training for a specific profession, then the needs of that profession are quite relevant. And the needs are found *in the profession* and not necessarily in the interests of the trainee. In other words the needs of the profession must become the interests of the trainee, if he ever expects to succeed and be happy in his work. This is true no matter how difficult it may appear or actually be to meet those needs.

This article is primarily concerned with the science training of the elementary teacher during the college course. This problem differs somewhat from that of other fields because in most cases it must begin at scratch. The student is handicapped at the start because of lack of science work in his elementary school course. Hence, his college training must care for two needs: (1) cultural background in science essential for an educated layman, and (2) materials and methods in science for actual use in teaching in elementary schools.

#### CULTURAL BACKGROUND IN SCIENCE FOR THE EDUCATED LAYMAN

The cultural background in science should be broad, including experience in various fields of biological and physical sciences, astronomy, biology, chemistry, geology, physics, meteorology, physiology. The educated layman should have a general idea of the scientific world, a scientific point of view regarding life experiences, an appreciation of the achievements of scientific research, a keen sympathy with and desire to promote scientific progress, a practical knowledge of his own body and its functions, and a sufficient understanding of his natural and physical environment to use and enjoy it intelligently.

The modern teacher must be an educated layman capable of directing others toward maintaining the same ideals of attainment.

Such a general background cannot be attained from a compartmentalized college curriculum without crowding out other essential experiences. It is evident that the solution lies in broad survey courses. These courses must be organized on the same high standard as more specialized courses if we are to give the cultural background desired. This is being done successfully in a large number of our more progressive institutions of higher learning.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS FOR TEACHING SCIENCE

While these science experiences are essential in the cultural background of the teacher, they do not provide the first-hand experiences with the natural and physical environment which form the common meeting ground with the children. Many of us miss so much of the life about us until we learn to observe. The training of the adult should not be forced upon the child but the science experiences in the environment of the child must be recognized and understood by the teacher if she is to use them to enrich and vitalize the school activities. In addition, the teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the child's physiology. Science has shown what a direct effect such conditions as malnutrition, fatigue, eye and ear defects, and lack of endocrine balance may have upon mental ability and the learning process. These factors cannot be thoroughly appreciated without a clear cut understanding of the human organism.

Every prospective teacher should take a professional course in sciences in the upper division of college work closely preceding practice teaching. Such a course must be extensive enough to insure that the student has an acquaintance with the identity and habits of the biota (birds, insects, flowers, trees, mammals, reptiles, amphibians, etc.) of his environment. Actual field experience is essential in order to have a real comprehension of living things. He needs to understand something of the basic principles of the many mechanical and electrical contrivances of his everyday life such as the electric light, refrigeration, the airplane, the radio, the telephone, power transmission, electric and gasoline motors. He should have an accurate conception of our universe and of the origin and development of this land on which we live, the rocks, minerals, fossils, land forms. He should know the factors which govern the weather. He needs to understand the scientific bases of the industries of his locality. With such a background he will be able to appreciate what science contributes to the enrichment of any school activity. Careful instruction in methods of presenting science work is important. Agassiz's injunction of "Study

Nature not Books" is as true today as a century ago. Too many teachers feel that they have discharged their responsibilities in science teaching when they have taught the children a pretty poem about Robin Redbreast. There are volumes of scientific information valuable to everyone, but vastly more important is the scientific attitude toward problems and their solution which comes only through experience. Science demands accuracy of observation and statement. The fairy tale has no place in science instruction.

The teacher cannot know everything in science so she may expect to say "I don't know. Let's find out" many times. But it is unfortunate if she has to say this every time a scientific reference comes into the discussion. It is an ideal situation when an entire group including the teacher unites to solve a problem. But the teacher must have a reserve. Part of the responsibility of the suggested training course, is to acquaint the teacher with sources of information.

With the acceptance of the integrated program built about child activity, such training for teachers becomes imperative. The demands upon the teacher's background, experience, and versatility are enormously increased. The success of any program depends upon whether or not the teachers are prepared to meet it.

This same challenge comes to the teacher in the field. If her background in science is meager she must do something to enrich it. This cannot be done by means of books alone. Science, if it is to be vital to children, must be experienced first hand. Many helping hands are being extended to the teacher. *Science Guide for Elementary Schools*, published by the State Department of Education, represents an attempt to place accurate information, applicable to California, into the hands of the elementary teacher. The *Suggested Course of Study in Science for the Elementary School*<sup>1</sup> is in the process of revision. State colleges and other institutions are offering summer school courses, field work, night classes, and extension courses. At least some of these are available to every teacher in the state. She should examine her own education critically and work consistently to fill in the weak spots. She should not be content with makeshifts for she needs a thorough background which, like the child's, can be built only through first hand experience.

May we then as educators march on abreast of time. Let us take from the school of the past those features which have been proved of real worth and adapt our modern school to the child of modern civilization.

<sup>1</sup> *Suggested Course of Study in Science for Elementary Schools*, State of California Department of Education Bulletin No. 13, Part 1, July 1, 1932.



## SPEECH OPPORTUNITIES VIEWED FROM A NEW ANGLE<sup>1</sup>

RUTH L. HOUSEMAN AND RHODA MAE POLKINGHORN, *First Grade  
Teachers, Burbank Public Schools*

### A NEW CONCEPT OF SPEECH OPPORTUNITIES

Do we as teachers know and recognize speech opportunities as they appear in the modern curriculum? Although these opportunities are occurring daily, are we aware of them and utilizing them to the best advantage? Perhaps there is no one phase of education that deserves a more important place in our curriculum.

Our modern curriculum is being constantly rid of those things which do not make for effective living on the part of the child. Likewise we are adding those things which are becoming a necessary part of our educational program because of the changing needs of civilization. Speech has played and probably always will play an important part in our educational program. The modern demands on every citizen in both oral and written expression are constantly increasing. It is now nationally recognized that for more intelligent social and economic planning, for a better adaptation of life to changing civilization, for a more efficient living some means of more effective thinking and expression must be developed. No matter what the future holds for the individual child, it is certain that he will need an adequate medium of communication. Speech enters into his life daily. He is judged by his speech habits, and he is constantly judging others by theirs. It is this general feeling of the need for better expression that has brought such emphasis on the teaching of speech in the schools. Speech cannot be separated from any part of our daily program. It therefore becomes the "animating principle of every educational program" and every teacher becomes a teacher of speech.

While the developmental or speech improvement program must be carried on by the classroom teacher and correlated with the regular curriculum, disorders and defects of speech can be corrected only by a highly trained speech therapist. To those unfamiliar with the field of speech defects and disorders, the term *speech correction* usually means the correction of grammar and pronunciation. But those who have studied the many aspects of speech correction understand it to

<sup>1</sup> More complete outlines showing speech opportunities in curriculum units may be obtained from Bureau of Correction of Speech Defects, State Department of Education, Sacramento.

mean the eradication of such defects as stammering, stuttering, cluttering, neurotic lisping, the several types of organic lisping, invented language, infantile speech and speech defects due to severe malformations of the oral speech mechanism such as cleft palate speech.

The great danger in a developmental program lies in the fact that most teachers do not recognize speech opportunities as such. Each day holds an infinite number of possibilities which will slip by unnoticed unless the teacher becomes speech conscious. Speech is so definitely tied up with the emotional and physical as well as the mental life of the child that it is impossible to separate these. If the best speech results are to be obtained this threefold aspect of the child must be considered. Speech work with children results in the development of the child's power to reason, the best possible physical control and emotional stability. Thus we must consider those activities which contribute to this wholeness of the child as being speech opportunities in the light of modern education.

#### THE TASK OF THE TEACHER IN IMPROVING SPEECH

When a child enters school he usually comes from a friendly atmosphere where father and mother and possibly grandparents have placed importance on his every utterance. It is the duty of teachers to keep alive the child's feeling that he is in a friendly, happy environment where people welcome his responses. It is the teacher's responsibility to create challenging situations that will inspire an interest and desire for oral expression because it is through these situations that the child will develop fluency.

The next step is to see that the child continues to participate in activities which challenge his interest and desire. As speech opportunities in the broader sense merely mean the releasing of inner forces, a teacher who guides the child in challenging situations in harmony with his interests, desires, and mental level need not worry about the mechanical part of speech training. Enunciation, pronunciation, and good grammar will be developed without the child being conscious of the teacher's objectives. The small child has a natural tendency to imitate and this may be utilized as a constant opportunity for speech development. If a teacher has a pleasing well modulated voice it will serve as a good example for correct speech habits. Speech training should be considered essentially developmental and not corrective. Speech opportunities arise naturally out of the every-day classroom experiences and should not be an isolated part of the daily program.

### OPPORTUNITIES FOR SPEECH TRAINING IN A FIRST GRADE UNIT OF WORK

*Speech Opportunities in a Toy Unit.* A day spent in a first grade room where a unit of work built around interest in toys would reveal the unlimited possibilities for fluency of speech. The interest of the child in the experiences with toys is assurance that he will have something to say.

In such a unit of work children may tell of a visit to the toy shop and plan the making of toys for their own shop. They may tell about toys they have at home, or those they have made. The teacher probably has many objectives in mind. She will aim to guide the children in unity of thought, clearness of tone, enunciation, pronunciation, good choice of words, and fluency of expression. Her main objective however will be to create situations which will make for joyous, healthful living for this is fundamental in developing oral expression.

Some of the children may be able to hold the attention of the group when they speak while others can not. Through discussion the teacher can point out ways in which the attention of the group may be gained and held, and in this way not only make the child feel a need for better speech but incidentally give him the tools with which to work.

### CLASSROOM SITUATIONS CONDUCTIVE TO EMOTIONAL STABILITY

In a unit of work centering about interest in toys, a child might tell about his conversation with Santa Claus at a local toy shop. He might relate how Santa promised to bring him an expensive toy. If the family are in limited circumstances the teacher may realize that the child's hopes are not apt to be fulfilled. Here is a chance for aiding the child in making the right reaction to a life situation. It is definitely a speech opportunity, as at this time she may be able to help the child make a proper adjustment to his environment, thereby contributing to his emotional stability. A discussion may follow in which various suggestions may be made by the group, as to the proper reactions to the given situation. An interesting story may be told by another child showing that he has made a thoughtful response to a similar situation.

"I asked Santa Claus to bring a tricycle. I wanted a bell and a light on it. He brought one with only a bell. I liked it just the same."

If the stories told by the children are made into charts which are used as a reading lesson they may serve a twofold purpose: that

of developing unity of thought and emphasizing a right reaction to a life situation. This is only one type of experience which makes for emotional stability.

A discussion about the source of toys inspired by the label, "Made in Japan," for instance, may furnish an excellent opportunity to discuss friendly relations with people of other countries. Another example of such a contribution in the toy unit may be the friendly relations of customer and keeper brought out through dramatizing the activities that go on in a toy shop. The social contacts that the children have during the work period, the sharing of tools, the cooperating in constructing, the offering of suggestions are all situations contributing to the emotional adjustment of the children. Singing and dramatization, because they are outlets for inner forces, make their contribution in the development of emotional stability. Stories read to the children, if well selected, often are an important factor in contributing to emotional stability. "The Little Engine That Could" is a good example of this type of story to use in connection with the toy interest because its keynote, "I think I can," gives a desirable mental attitude to a common need. Every day is replete with opportunities for the development of speech and the right attitudes which will insure fluency.

#### CONTRIBUTION OF SPONTANEOUS PHYSICAL ACTIVITY TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPEECH

The new curriculum is rich in possibilities for physical activity, and in the activities related to their interest in toys the children are having physical expression in playing games, in dramatizing and in hammering, sawing, working with clay, sewing, and painting. Speech opportunities are an integral part of all those activities which aid in developing physical control. Spontaneous physical activity is valuable in speech training because it releases tension and inhibitions and contributes to the wholeness of the child's personality.

#### CLASSROOM DEVELOPMENT OF THE MENTAL ASPECT OF THE CHILD

In developing the mental side of the child the modern teacher is striving to give him the tools with which to solve his problems. Interest is the dynamic force in education. The activity program is based upon the interests of children. Children are constantly making evaluations of materials, plans, and work accomplished. Dramatization calls for planning, stimulates the imagination, develops creative ability and spontaneous expression. All of these experiences

give the child a feeling of power that makes for joyous healthful living and hence for spontaneous use of language.

### CONCLUSION

Preventive as well as corrective work in speech is the responsibility of the public schools. The degree to which teachers are conscious of speech and plan consistently for a developmental speech program, to that degree will speech improvement be effected. While it is recognized that the speech disorder field must be covered by a speech therapist in a special program the work of the classroom teacher equipped with a background in the speech arts will do much to equip children with a fluency of expression which will help them meet the demands of present day society more effectively.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Two recent books in the field of speech education by California authors are mentioned in Editorial Comment and News Notes, p. 77.



## A STUDY OF CHILDREN'S ATTITUDES TOWARD MEXICANS<sup>1</sup>

ELEANORE L. MCCAMMON, *Teacher, Paradise School, Chico*

The importance of studying attitudes can be realized as it is more and more evident that what one does and how one thinks are not determined so much by cold intellectual reasoning, as they are by emotional attitudes.

The question of the successful functioning of the League of Nations and world peace has behind it a series of accumulated attitudes and emotions, which, however much we might delude ourselves, could not be offset by a decision for intellectual reasoning on the part of a few. Even those few would not deny the influence of emotional thinking, and the part this plays in settling problems of any kind, and more particularly those problems which have to do with questions of international understanding.

The small boy who made the deduction, "There is good and bad in all races, but I think the Mexicans are very interesting, and I can learn many things from them," had an ideal attitude toward one racial group. This point of view would give him perspective, if for any reason he had experience with only one class of a given race. The problem of racial attitude becomes important in the early life of a child for we see its influence upon his distinction between races in overt action.

### ATTITUDES AND THEIR SOURCES

The Mexicans, surely as important as any national group, merit consideration. What attitudes do our children in the intermediate grades in the elementary schools hold toward Mexicans? Where did they obtain these opinions?

Opinions regarding Mexicans were obtained from 368 children in the following grades and schools:

- 26 children in high sixth grade, Hawthorne School, East Oakland
- 100 children in high fourth, low and high fifth, and low sixth grades in Lafayette School, West Oakland
- 143 children in high sixth, low and high seventh, and low and high eighth grades in the Washington School, Alameda
- 99 children in the low fourth, low fifth, and low sixth grades, in the University Elementary School, Berkeley

Ten classrooms were visited, where an informal discussion was carried on with the children for the purpose of introducing them to

<sup>1</sup> Part of a study carried on under the direction of Dr. John A. Hockett in a Seminar in Elementary Curriculum at the University of California.

the subject which was to follow. The questions asked involved information as to how many had (1) known any Mexican children or "grown ups;" (2) read books about Mexicans; (3) seen "movies" about Mexicans; (4) heard anything about Mexicans from parents, friends, or over the radio, and (5) known Mexicans in Sunday-school, or in clubs, such as the Boy Scouts and Camp Fire Girls. The interest of the children was obtained through active oral response to these questions, after which they were asked to express in writing their opinions of Mexicans, that is, what they thought about them. It was assumed that the younger children would not be able to put down in writing anything as intangible to them as an opinion, and that their efforts would be mostly simple statements of what they knew about Mexicans, yet the fourth grades were included with the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in order to get written expression from children as young as nine years of age. After they had finished writing their opinions they were requested to record as accurately as possible the source of the opinions they had expressed.

In general it was found that for each statement the child had given his source of opinion. Therefore an attempt was made to tabulate the statements made by the children according to source of opinion, with the following secondary classification: (a) entirely favorable attitudes, (b) both favorable and unfavorable attitudes expressed in the same paper, (c) entirely unfavorable attitudes.

Table I presents a summary of the children's expressions and opinions regarding Mexicans.

It may be of interest to note some of the indications of this table. In Washington School in Alameda, a district in which there are many Mexicans, the greatest percentage of favorable opinions were expressed, or almost twice the percentage in the University Elementary School in Berkeley, where few of the children are acquainted with Mexicans. Lafayette School in West Oakland, and Washington School in Alameda, both districts with many Mexicans, also show the lowest percentage of unfavorable attitudes, while the percentage of unfavorableness indicated by children in University Elementary School is more than twice as great as in Lafayette School. Children in Washington School were in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, while those in University Elementary School were in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades.

From Table I it will be seen that 23, or 6 per cent, of the total number of children make no expression; 59, or 16 per cent, give facts only; while 122, or 33 per cent, express favorable opinions. Of the 368 children, 65, or 18 per cent, present only unfavorable attitudes, while 99, or 24 per cent, express both favorable and unfavorable opinions.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF EXPRESSIONS AND OPINIONS OF 368 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN REGARDING MEXICANS

Reactions	Schools								Total	
	Hawthorne		Lafayette		Washington		University			
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
No expression.....	2	8	17	17	2	2	2	2	23	6
Facts only.....	3	12	23	23	6	4	27	28	59	16
Favorable opinions.....	4	15	32	32	62	43	24	24	122	33
Favorable and unfavorable opinions.....	11	42	16	16	53	37	19	19	99	27
Unfavorable opinions.....	6	23	12	12	20	14	27	27	65	18
Total.....	26	100	100	100	143	100	99	100	368	100

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF OPINIONS OF 368 CHILDREN ACCORDING TO SOURCE OF OPINIONS REGARDING MEXICANS

Source of opinions	Reactions							
	Favorable		Favorable and unfavorable		Unfavorable		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Knowing Mexicans.....	90	51	43	25	42	24	175	100
Reading books.....	73	58	23	18	30	24	126	100
Seeing "movies".....	25	26	15	15	57	59	97	100
Radio.....	3	43	3	43	1	14	7	100
Sunday-school.....	15	94	1	6	0	0	16	100
Hearsay other than radio and Sunday-school.....	8	32	3	12	14	56	25	100
Total.....	214	48	88	20	144	32	446	100

Table II gives the distribution of statements according to source expressed by the 368 children. The total number of statements, 446, does not correspond with the total number of pupils, since some individuals expressed more than one opinion, while others merely made

statements of fact. The same statement appearing in several classifications means that different sources are given for the same opinion by different individuals. Of the total 446 opinions expressed, the greatest number, 175, was obtained as a result of knowing Mexicans themselves. Of these 175 individual opinions, more than half, 90, or 51 per cent, were favorably inclined toward Mexicans, and slightly less than one-fourth, 42, or 24 per cent, were unfavorably inclined. A slightly higher percentage of favorable opinions resulted from reading about Mexicans, 58 per cent, while the percentage of those unfavorably disposed as a result of reading was 24 per cent.

The next two sources of opinion shown in the table are the "movies" and hearsay, which showed the greatest percentage of unfavorableness. In both cases, over one-half are unfavorably inclined toward them, 59 per cent and 56 per cent respectively, while in the case of "movies" as a source, only slightly over one-fourth, 26 per cent, are agreeably disposed, and in the case of hearsay, other than Sunday School and the radio, under one third, 32 per cent.

#### ACQUAINTANCE WITH MEXICANS

Acquaintanceship with Mexicans, as a source of opinion, shows a high percentage of favorableness, 51 per cent of the 175 opinions expressed. Some of the favorable attitudes obtained by children through acquaintanceship with Mexicans were:

1. Mexicans are very nice people.
2. Mexicans are just like us, only they speak a different kind of language.
3. I think Mexican ways are different from ours, but they are all right.
4. Mexicans are all people just like us.
5. We can learn many things from Mexicans.
6. I think Mexicans are very interesting to talk and play with.
7. Mexicans are good friends to have.
8. Mexicans have good manners.
9. I think if Mexicans were given a fair chance they would be as good or better citizens than some of us.
10. Mexicans are fine playmates and play square.
11. Mexicans are quiet, honest people who always get down to business and make good friends.
12. I like Mexicans very much.
13. If you are good to Mexicans, they will be good to you.
14. I think Mexicans are nice people, but most people have the wrong opinion of them.
15. Mexicans are very generous.

In this same classification, acquaintanceship with Mexicans, were examples where the children expressed both favorable and unfavorable opinion, 25 per cent of 175. Some instances were:

1. Mexicans are all right in some ways, but are kind of mean.
2. Unless you know Mexicans you do not think highly of them.
3. I think Mexican children are all right if you stay away from them and do not play with them.
4. I think Mexicans are very dirty people who hardly wash their faces, but they are very friendly.
5. I like Mexicans half and half because they know a few things that I don't.
6. Many Mexicans are big-headed "know-it-alls," although many are not this way.
7. I don't mind Mexicans but I don't like to have them going to all of our schools and being around us.
8. Some Mexicans are good and some are bad, but I don't like them so much.
9. I like to play with Mexicans once in a while.

Opinions obtained through acquaintance with Mexicans which were entirely unfavorable are illustrated; 24 per cent of 175:

1. I think Mexicans are a little like Indians if they would wear feathers in their heads.
2. I think Mexicans are a low class of people.
3. Mexicans are not well educated.
4. Mexicans are always wanting to fight and pick on little children.
5. Mexicans have bad tempers.
6. Mexicans are as changeable as the wind.
7. Mexicans spy on you if they can.
8. I don't like to play with Mexicans.
9. I think Mexicans carry disease.
10. Mexicans cheat and swear.
11. I think Mexicans are a war-like people.
12. I am afraid of Mexicans.
13. Mexicans are fat and mean.
14. I would hate very much to be a Mexican.
15. Mexicans are not as clean as Americans nor as civilized.

Despite the apparent intensity of prejudice against Mexicans by these children, the high percentage of favorable expression, 51 per cent of 175, seems to indicate that an understanding of the racial group, in this case, is conducive to tolerance.



## READING ABOUT MEXICANS

Favorable opinions received through reading about Mexico or Mexicans indicate that more favorable impressions have been received than unfavorable, 58 per cent of 126 favorable. Some of these were:

1. I think that the Mexican people are as good as anyone else.
2. Mexicans have different ideas than we have, but they are all right.
3. There are some Mexicans better than white people.
4. When you know Mexicans you begin to like them.
5. I think Mexicans are fine people and I would like to see some real live Mexican children.
6. Mexicans are friendly and welcome strangers to their homes.
7. Mexicans are good friends to have.
8. I think Mexicans are a very kind people and loyal.
9. Mexicans are as fine a race as any I know.
10. I feel sorry for Mexicans because they have such a hard time in the United States to get work.
11. I think it would be fun to play with Mexican children.

It may be interesting to note that the expression, "I think Mexicans are very interesting," listed by 16 children, had as its source, *The Little Mexican Donkey Boy*, by Madeline Brandeis,<sup>1</sup> and the opinions, "Mexicans are brave," and "I think it would be fun to play with Mexican children," came from the book, *Nadita*.<sup>2</sup> "I think Mexicans are a happy race," had as its source a story in the magazine *Child Life*.

Some opinions obtained by children from reading about Mexico or Mexicans which express both favorable and unfavorable qualities were 18 per cent of 126:

1. Some Mexicans are very dirty and some are very clean.
2. Mexicans are nice people, only they talk a different language than we do.
3. I think Mexican people are very nice, but some of them steal.
4. Mexicans are nice but I wouldn't like to live with one.
5. Mexicans are pretty good, but they might mix too much with us if we know them.
6. Mexicans are all right in some ways, but kind of mean.
7. Mexicans are good people in their own country, but not so good on this side of the border.
8. Some are lovely people, and some are cruel people.

<sup>1</sup> Madeline Brandeis. *The Little Mexican Donkey Boy*. Chicago: A. Flanagan Company, 1931.

<sup>2</sup> Grace P. Moon. *Nadita*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1929.

Opinions entirely unfavorable obtained by children through reading about Mexico and Mexicans were, 24 per cent of 126:

1. I think Mexicans are robbers and steal things.
2. I think Mexicans are kidnappers.
3. Mexicans look too much like Indians.
4. I think Mexicans are something like colored people.
5. Mexicans are rough, fierce, ill-mannered folk.
6. Mexicans are mostly bad men.
7. Mexicans are not as intelligent as other people because most of them in Mexico are beggars.
8. Mexicans are criminals.
9. Mexicans rob, gamble, drink and kill all the time.
10. Mexicans are sly and mischievous.
11. Mexicans are very dumb.
12. I don't like Mexicans because they remind me of the Japanese.
13. Mexicans are always fighting with guns.

The source for the expression "Mexicans rob, gamble, drink and kill all the time," was listed by the children as "Pancho Villa," a serial story running in a local newspaper. Other unfavorable opinions were obtained from Mexican border tales.

The high percentage of unfavorable opinions regarding Mexicans gained from movies seems to indicate the "movie" types these children have been subjected to. Only 26 per cent of 97 opinions were listed as entirely favorable toward Mexicans when they had for their source "movies." Some of these were:

1. Mexicans are good friends to have.
2. If you respect Mexicans, they will respect you.
3. When you know Mexicans you begin to like them.
4. There are good and bad in all nationalities, but I think the Mexican people are one of the most interesting people.

It takes a fair minded child to have made a deduction such as this last, and yet it represents an ideal attitude toward any race.

Those opinions received by children from the "movies" which had both favorable and unfavorable qualities were, 15 per cent of 97:

1. Some Mexicans are nice and some are not.
2. Some Mexicans are dirty and crooked and kill and some are nice.
3. Some Mexicans aren't so clean but that's no sign they all aren't.

What a deplorable state our children would be in if they all held the following opinions of Mexicans, or of any race, for that matter. Out of 97 opinions, 57, or 59 per cent, were unfavorable opinions of Mexicans, and were obtained from the "movies":

1. Mexicans are robbers and kidnappers.
2. Mexicans are queer and different from other people.
3. Mexicans are not as civilized as Americans.
4. Mexicans are bandits.
5. Mexicans are always dirty and bad.
6. Mexicans are a knife-throwing people.
7. I don't like Mexican people.
8. Mexicans are very mean, sly, and mischievous.
9. Mexicans are thieves and I am afraid of them.
10. Mexicans are gamblers.
11. Mexican children are funny children.
12. Mexicans steal, and kill anybody they can find.
13. Mexicans are looking for trouble all the time.
14. Mexicans are cruel because they have bull fights.

Some of the favorable opinions expressed toward Mexicans in 8 out of 25 statements, 32 per cent, which were obtained from hearsay, other than the radio and Sunday School were:

1. I think most Mexicans are nice to have around.
2. I think if I met a Mexican I would like him.
3. I think that the Mexican people are as good as anybody else.
4. Mexicans are humans just like we are.

Examples of those statements listed by children which contained both favorable and unfavorable opinion as a result of hearsay were, 12 per cent of 25:

1. I think Mexicans should not have as much privilege in the United States as we have, but they are just as good as we are.
2. Mexicans are just like we are, some of them are kind of sloppy and some are very neat.

#### OPINIONS GATHERED FROM HEARSAY

When we further consider these opinions gathered by children as a result of hearsay apart from the radio and Sunday School, we find that 14 out of 25, 56 per cent, are unfavorable opinions of Mexicans. The sources listed by the children were from relatives or parents. The question is: Will the child adopt the same attitude as the parent, if the parent is already prejudiced against a race? Some of these unfavorable opinions listed by children as a result of hearsay were:

1. Mexicans are not clean people, and do not like to make friends with anyone.
2. I think of a savage when I think of a Mexican.
3. I don't like Mexicans as much as I know.

4. Mexicans are all lazy and kind of slow.
5. I think Mexicans are sneaky.
6. Mexicans should make a living in their own country instead of coming to the United States.
7. I would not want to be seen with a Mexican.
8. Mexicans are always gambling and they always work at garbage dumps.

#### INFLUENCE OF THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL

There was no entirely unfavorable opinion listed with source from the Sunday School. The most unfavorable opinion was, "Some Mexicans are clean and some are not." Some favorable opinions were:

1. I think Mexicans are very nice people.
2. Mexicans are helpful when they can be.
3. The Mexicans I know are very clean and I think most of them are.
4. Mexicans are friendly.

The source of some of these opinions from the Sunday School as listed by the children was from screen slides shown at church on such topics as, "Our Neighbor, Mexico."

#### INFLUENCE OF THE RADIO

Some of the favorable opinions listed which had for their source the radio were:

1. I think Mexicans are nice people and loyal.
2. Mexicans are interesting and gay.

Such an opinion as "Mexicans talk queer," obtained by a child from the radio shows lack of conception of other people and their language on the part of the child.

No entirely unfavorable opinion was listed by any child with its source from the radio, which suggests a good use to which the radio has been put in recent years.

#### THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL

The educational value of determining the racial attitudes which children hold is vital, especially in light of the acknowledged fact that what one does and how one thinks are not determined so much by cold, intellectual reasoning, as they are by attitudes and emotions. It is the purpose of the school to create in children an understanding, an appreciation, and a tolerance of all races through providing experiences in which socially desirable attitudes may be developed.

Modern life has projected the subject of attitudes into a place of vital importance. Modern means of communication and transportation have brought nations together as "close neighbors." And yet, preconceived attitudes, failure to see all sides of a question, and racial prejudices have undoubtedly had a profound influence on the present status of international relations.

Tolerance and understanding must be watchwords in the school's program. But attitudes are developed both in and out of the classroom. Tolerance of Mexicans, for example, could never be attained by children through exposing them to a motion picture representing Mexicans as a race of cutthroats and robbers. Understanding of Mexicans or any other people, is not to be gained through reading a book which gives a false and incomplete picture of the life and customs of that people. The school must be armed with facts, not with propaganda. The school and the community together must take a definite stand against undesirable motion pictures or other detrimental out-of-school activities which stimulate unfavorable attitudes. Unbiased racial attitudes may be hoped for only if the child has had adequate, accurate information and socially desirable emotional experiences in relation to the people in question.

If a high percentage of the attitudes of the children reported in this study were unfavorable toward Mexicans because of books read about them, then there must have been something wrong with the reading materials which were provided. If an acquaintance with Mexicans is conducive to a favorable attitude toward these neighbors an opportunity to know more Mexican people should be provided by school and home environment. If, out of 368 children, 59 per cent expressed unfavorable attitudes because of ideas about Mexicans they had obtained from movies, and 56 per cent expressed unfavorable attitudes because of hearsay, then these particular movies were undesirable as a form of out-of-school activity, and the sources of the hearsay were a malicious influence and should be avoided.

International problems can be settled in a sane and just way only when there is complete understanding of the people concerned and an acceptance of the principles of brotherly love. The school has an important responsibility in relation to the racial attitudes of the children entrusted to its care. It is hoped that a study of the data presented here will suggest possible ways and means of approaching a study of attitudes and their sources in order that the schools may be informed about current attitudes toward various peoples held by their children and the sources of these attitudes, and, what is more important, instigate a program which will promote socially desirable racial attitudes in children early in life.



